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ABSTRACT

Topics covered in papers presented at a conference on languages and communication for world business and the professions include: (1) trends and aspects of internationalizing the business curriculum; (2) internationalized programs in business, foreign language, and cultures; (3) internationalized courses in business, foreign languages, and cultures; (4) doing business around the world; (5) business and professional English for speakers of other languages; (6) business and professional French, German, Japanese, Chinese, and Spanish; (7) translation and interpretation; (8) the global economy and higher education's role; (9) building oral skills among business students and professionals; (10) culture shock; and (11) overcoming barriers to communication. Of the 78 papers included, eight contain abstracts only. (MSE)

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE SIXTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE
ON
LANGUAGES AND COMMUNICATION FOR WORLD BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

THE ANN ARBOR INN, ANN ARBOR, MICHIGAN
MAY 8 - 9, 1987

Prepared and Edited with Preface by
Gaston R. Des Harnais
Under the Auspices of the World College

Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, Michigan 48197

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PREFACE

The Sixth Annual Conference on Languages and Communication for World Business and the Professions was held at the Ann Arbor Inn, Ann Arbor, Michigan, May 7-9, 1987. The Conference was attended by 240 persons, mostly educators in both languages and international business and cultures. Almost half of the attendees were from business schools, marking an important shift in awareness in universities across the nation. Likewise, of the 90 speakers, fully half were affiliated and active in business training and education. The enthusiasm generated by this hybridization was reflected in the sessions themselves.

In fact the keynote address by Dr. Duane Kujawa, recent President of the Academy of International Businesss and now Associate Dean for International Business Studies at The University of Miami, Coral Gables, focused on the status of international studies in business schools throughout the United States. The movement to combine global perspectives in culture with business expertise is gaining momentum. The same theme was elaborated by Dr. Sven Groennings, Senior Fellow, New England Board of Higher Education. Both excellent keynote presentations are contained in this volume.

I should add that Dr. Kujawa, based on his experience at the conference, returned to Eastern Michigan University this past October to serve as a consultant concerning our new joint degree program, the Language and World Business B.B.A./B.A. As recent past-president of the Academy of International Business, he endorsed and encouraged the interdisciplinary combining of language and cultural training with business know-how. Perhaps the application of liberal studies to more globally focused business programs will signal in our universities an advance toward competitiveness and create "value added" to our educational preparedness.

Also, since the conference, the second keynote speaker, Dr. Groennings, has contributed two major reports from The New England Board of Higher Education. They are "Ecomomic Competiveness and International Knowledge" and "The Impact of Economic Globalization on Higher Education," both available from the Board at 45 Temple Place, Boston, MA 02111. Both staff papers are an indispensable extension of the major themes of this annual conference.

The conference itself had a large number of sessions devoted to the teaching of business and professional courses in foreign languages. It is a mark of the sophistication of these language educators, both speakers and participants, that their methods and training techniques are increasingly influenced by the massive shifts in world business and communication, both in governmental as well as corporate contexts.

Talks on language approaches were matched by presentations on global staffing and training, cross-cultural communication and by training for interpretation and translation in technical aspects of business.

An important feature of this conference has been status reports on models showing the development of internationalized curricular programs in the United States and abroad. Such reports dealt with initiatives by experts in language departments which have approached business, technology, and other colleges or faculty groups in order to lend the creditability of language options to the global perspective increasingly demanded in professional studies.

The Lauder Institute, the Niels Brock School of International Business (see Bjornoe), the Language and International Trade (L.I.T.) program in multiple professions at Clemson University, and finally the new Language and World Business Joint Degree (B.B.A./B.A.) along with that pacesetter program, the L.I.T., here at Eastern Michigan University -- all serve as strong and appropriate coming-to-terms with the global, economic and cultural status of professional studies today.

Also in this conference, another enduring facet of international studies was reviewed in its ever-changing context, international cooperative education student exchange programs (see Raffield, Bousquet, Smith).

The mainstay of the conference has been and continues to be the large array of foreign language and ESL presentations which update techniques, display interactive innovation and define the shared territory of our educational endeavor. Ultimately it is our students who become the summation of what we teach and hope for. As liberal arts become more focused on the stages and goals of professional development and professional studies become more capitalized in the vast global lore of languages and the social sciences, it is the student who becomes the citizen of the world. The prosperity and spiritual well-being of our nation may well depend on this "marriage" of values in the decades to come.

For the record, let it be known that this conference and its participants chart the course to secure something of that brave new world.

I wish to close by thanking Stella Switala for gathering and systematizing all the files which comprise these proceedings. Her accuracy, intelligence, and diligence have made these interesting and valuable papers accessible to all who wish to consult them.

Along with the Co-chairpersons, Geoffrey Voght and John Hubbard, I thank all those who participated in this conference and contributed to its enduring success.

Gaston R. Des Harnais
Project Director
World College and Intercollegiate
Internationalization of Curriculum
December 1987

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE SIXTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE
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LANGUAGES AND COMMUNICATION FOR
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PART I.

INTERNATIONALIZING THE BUSINESS CURRICULUM

ACCEPTANCE IN THE ACADEMY FOR BUSINESS-FOREIGN LANGUAGE COURSES IN THE COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY CURRICULUM

by
Robert Smith, Ph.D.
Illinois College

ACCEPTANCE IN THE ACADEMY FOR BUSINESS-FOREIGN LANGUAGE COURSES IN THE COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY CURRICULUM

I will attempt to outline some challenges commonly met by a foreign language department in the attempt to gain and maintain academic acceptance and support for Business/Foreign Language courses in the regular curriculum of the college or university. My remarks will come from a traditional liberal arts perspective, since my experience in this area has been as a German professor and Modern Languages Department chairman in a small liberal arts college. To give you a quick idea of the situation I will mention that Illinois College has just under 800 students with a foreign language requirement (intermediate level) for the B.A., but no foreign language for the B.S. (most majors have their choice). Currently we enroll about 200 students in all levels of the three languages offered (Spanish, French, German). Of the students enrolled in advanced classes, nearly all are involved in one of three combined-major or double-major programs: Education-Foreign Language, International Studies-Foreign Language, or Business-Foreign Language.

The Business-Foreign Language program is our youngest combined major, having been established six years ago. It has faced significant challenges within the college community from the time it was proposed through the present time, and the Modern Language Department continues to be kept on its collective toes in anticipating and meeting them. The program was challenged at the outset with the question of the suitability of specialized courses being offered in a subject field which is largely viewed as a service area anyway--at least in the lower level foreign language courses. If the Business-Foreign Language courses are to be instituted, we were asked, what area of need will they answer and how does that area differ from the specialized needs in other fields. In the hope that the answers we found may be of some help in your situation, I will briefly discuss five points at which we believe we have found at least partially persuasive answers.

I. The foreign language need of the graduate seeking entrance into the business world is decidedly of an oral-aural, i.e. functional-communicational nature. The job applicant for a position with a firm doing international business is likely first of all to be interviewed at least partially in his second language and then will most likely be expected to interact within the organization with native speakers who are superiors, colleagues, employees, and to represent the company before audiences or prospective markets whose native language must be addressed. This is a vastly different need from that of the natural or social scientist who is interested primarily in reading skills for research purposes or of the literary scholar who is interested in style, technique, nuance, etc. Teaching methods and devices aimed at oral-aural proficiency are quite distinct from those focused upon other objectives.

In our Business-Foreign Language classes which begin, enrollment permitting, at the intermediate level, we have instituted courses focusing very strongly on oral-aural proficiency with reading and writing as complementary but secondary goals. Classroom activities tend to be in the nature of dialog work, role playing, conversational problem posing and solving, construction of radio advertisments and television commercials. Tests and exams are usually of an oral nature and may involve the professor as interviewer or devil's advocate, but may also be a paired or group activity, either prepared or extemporaneous as to subject.

II. The international business person has a very definite need of a keen sensitivity to the culture-bound systems, institutions, and attitudes operating in the marketplace. Stories are commonplace which illustrate the disasters precipitated by a wrong word or phrase applied in what seems a very appropriate, even compelling context from an outsider's viewpoint. Any misunderstanding can be deadly from the point of view of the business person intent on closing a deal. The one who can operate successfully in the marketplace must be alert to the significance and power of the joke, the innuendo, the veiled threat, the implied proposal, and innumerable other nuances of language and communication. At least a beginning toward the development of such sensitivity can be nurtured in the interactions in the classroom.

III. As educators we must recognize and come to grips with the ever increasing pressure of economic necessity to operate in the international market. If it were ever appropriate to defend an isolationist position, that condition has certainly passed from the scene today. Even in western Illinois, sometimes labeled "Forgottonia" by the local politicians because of its supposed isolation and provinciality, it is now a commonplace for anyone with a known proficiency in another language to be bombarded with requests to serve as temporary interpreters for visiting business delegations, to conduct intensive language classes for American businessmen and workers being sent abroad, to translate and interpret instructions, operating manuals, company policy statements, in short, to bridge the gap between linguistic communities already united by economic realities.

Our graduates will face such challenges with increasing frequency and intensity in coming years. Even a career in "dad's hardware store" or the family farm will not provide insulation from the pressure of future one-world demands upon the individual. While it is true that we cannot prepare our students in detail for every situation, it is equally true that we can help them acquire the basic tools and techniques for dealing with the interaction of languages and cultures successfully in their careers as well as in their private lives.

IV. A further need is to make the business and trade skills which are being developed more marketable on an individual and personal level. It is remarkable how the awareness of such slight things as the minute difference between an English and a French, German, or Spanish keyboard on a typewriter or computer may mean the difference in landing a position or failing in the attempt. An appreciation of the necessity for the use of proper form of address and/or title in addressing and conversing with certain people is another example of an awareness necessary for interaction in the world of business. Much of the focus in this area lies in saturation of such points of knowledge so that proper usage becomes habitual and automatic--something that may not be at all needed for language users in other disciplines. Appropriate practice in the classroom will pay enormous dividends in career benefits.

V. In initiating any new program in the curriculum, the final question usually resolves itself into a matter of numbers. Just how many students will this proposed program affect and how much student demand can actually be demonstrated? We found ourselves on particularly strong ground here. The number of students in business administration and in accounting has dwarfed all other departments in our college for at least the past ten years and shows no signs of abatement in the near future. Each and every student in these programs was a potential enrollee in and beneficiary of a special Business-Foreign Language course. Demonstrating student demand for such courses was mainly a matter of getting the word out to the appropriate students that foreign language proficiency is a salable commodity, often a requirement on the marketplace of job and career. Even students who have avoided foreign language up to this point can become very interested when they realize that language skill may mean the difference in getting their preferred position or promotion or losing it.

We have found guidance materials of all kinds quite useful here, but two sorts of appeal have been particularly effective for us in recruiting and holding students in the programs: a compilation of current want-ads from St. Louis and Chicago newspapers in which language facility is required or preferred, and the personal testimony of alumni who have and are using language skills in their careers.

Once the Business-Foreign Language courses are in place in the curriculum, there are a number of critical areas which demand sustained attention in order to maintain and increase acceptance and esteem for the program. We have found these to be the most difficult set of tasks in the entire array. The most essential ingredients here are two in number: a nearly shameless degree of snoopiness in getting at the effectiveness and pertinence of the teaching-learning actually being done, and an extreme flexibility of approach in planning and teaching which allows for constant re-tooling as backgrounds of students and/or demands and requirements of the market situation shift. Once again I would like to touch upon five areas which we endeavor to keep uppermost in our conscious attention.

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I. We endeavor to upgrade constantly the timeliness and relevance of teaching materials and methods to current and predictable future business practice. This involves first of all an intimate and first-hand knowledge of the local business situation. We have quite limited opportunities in the area of internships in our local situation, but the prospect is somewhat brighter in the area of part-time jobs for students willing to search them out. The areas of employment shift from year to year among industries such as book-binding, agricultural and earth-moving machinery, record pressing and tape recording, soybean oil products, plastics, and clothing production. We try to tailor our courses each semester to fit the immediate needs and curiosities of the students enrolled. We have been met with enthusiastic, even eager, cooperation from the side of the employers.

The other side of the coin is to keep abreast of the international situation and give the learning a broad enough scope to be sufficiently flexible for more universal application. We lean heavily upon our colleagues in the Business Department for assistance here, but we also try to keep an eye on corporate reports and forecasts, government bulletins, etc. Students themselves can be a big help, too, because they are particularly alert to things like new technology, trends and changes in products, etc.

II. The effective utilization of all community resources available is one of our goals. Volunteer and service organizations, as well as corporations and stores, even private individuals in business for themselves have been helpful in bringing together the needs of student world and business world on the plane of foreign language usage. Opportunities for international internship programs and short term employment have opened up through such diverse sources as a local watch-maker and jeweler, the local Rotary Club, an area road-building company, the national foreign Language teachers' professional associations, and the local hospital. Each situation has its own contribution to make for the improvement of the program as a whole as well as for the individual student. No resource of this kind should be considered too small or specialized to merit attention and inclusion within the program.

III. We try to maintain a balance between specific application of language to professional-business usage and a more general proficiency in the language. Actually, we have not found this balance difficult to maintain because business language and general usage are so complementary to one another. In fact, it may be more evident in foreign language practice than in the professional preparation class that the successful salesman is as interested in his customer (general conversational skills needed) as he is in his product and the sale (professional, technical language skills), or that the effective manager must be as interested in his employees' welfare as he is in their productivity. Nevertheless, it is necessary on the part of the teacher to maintain a vigilance in assuring the teaching and learning of both general language proficiency as well as specific career-oriented language skills. In keeping with this demand we have adopted the concepts espoused by ACTFL under the rubric of teaching for functional proficiency, which means that the success of our program is evaluated on the basis of the student's language proficiency in an ever increasing and deepening array of situations.

IV. An important part of the program we have developed is the in-college on-going evaluation process. Once again, we rely heavily upon the judgments and suggestions of our colleagues in the Business Department and try to keep all channels of communication open. We firmly believe that our language courses should both complement and supplement the professional preparation classes. Therefore we try to be constantly in step with the learning in these classes. By providing further drill and practice in the students' target languages we hope to reinforce and solidify their professional skills while increasing and deepening their language proficiency. One check on the success of our efforts, then, involves progress and success in the business courses. We encourage the students to carry their successes and problems, understandings and challenges across disciplinary boundaries. As language teachers we have found that our own inadequacies in technical matters and procedures in Business-Economics are more than compensated for by the benefits of the experience the student gets while explaining a matter in the foreign language.

Often the effort to translate the problem has brought with it the added insight for its solution, either on the part of the speaker himself or from a classmate. Still a further check on the teaching-learning effectiveness lies with the student himself. We try to have a climate free of threat and external pressure so that students can and will continually evaluate their progress toward functional proficiency in the language, and we also have a system of formal self-evaluation by each student twice each semester.

V. The final component of our evaluation effort involves the follow-up investigation after students have left college classes. We try to make this a double-pronged evaluation whenever possible, finding out how the graduate feels about his preparation for the language situations he has met on the job and finding out how the employer feels about the adequacy of our students in the positions they have filled. Whenever possible we try to make our evaluations in informal conversations rather than through forms and questionaires which have a notoriously low rate of return. Often it is possible to interview alumnus and employer together which makes for a more open, above-board atmosphere and clarifies the fact that it is the program and our teaching which are being evaluated, not the alum or his/her job efficiency.

Thus far, we have been generally pleased with the acceptance and esteem the Business-Foreign Language program has achieved in the college. Initial skepticism which we had to face in the beginning on the part of several colleagues who had memories of less than pleasant experiences with foreign language learning has generally come around to positive support. Enrollment in the classes has shown a gradual growth, though much less dramatic than we had hoped. Recruitment is perhaps our weakest area, but this is at least partially intentional. We have gone slowly on selling the program to large numbers of students because we wanted to be sure first that we were going to be able to develop high enough quality to justify their participation. We have firm support from the administration of the college and now expect to continue and expand the program for the foreseeable future.

Acceptance for such a special program within the academic community had to be achieved on several different levels. Proving the need for courses in Business-Foreign Language was really difficult only in one area. A significant portion of our college faculty and administration clings tenaciously to a conservative definition of liberal arts. From this perspective it is assumed a necessary thing to maintain vigilance against any element of narrow vocationalism slipping into the curriculum. We took the key word here to be narrow and we set about making sure that the language component in Business-Foreign Language classes would have and hold to goals at least as broad and deep as those objectives normally set for regular foreign language classes. We deemed it futile to try to hide or even minimize the importance of differences between such special courses and the regular general course, but when the differences can be demonstrated to involve the type of material learned only, and that neither quality nor quantity of learned material is sacrificed, such objection usually softens or disappears.

Another crucial factor in our experience was the gaining and holding of support and cooperation from the business department. We have worked hard to attain a situation in which the language department can rely upon testimonies from Business-Economics colleagues of increased learning and effectiveness on the part of their students as a result of participation in the Business-Foreign Language courses. Such testimony within the college has to be regarded as evidence of success, and it is hard to oppose success. At the same time we try also to keep constantly before the students the increase of proficiency and capability they possess as a result of the foreign language skills they are mastering.

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THE AACSB

A VALUABLE TOOL FOR THE LANGUAGE EDUCATOR

Jean L. Bush-Bacelis

Department of Management

Eastern Michigan University

Presented to the Sixth Annual Conference on Languages and Communication for World Business and the Professions.
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ABSTRACT

All 245 colleges and schools of business accredited by the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) are influenced to globalize or to internationalize their curricula. They have been directed to be able to demonstrate the international aspect in each and every course. This paper will describe the AACSB, will suggest ways in which language educators and others can make use of the AACSB requirements in order to help colleagues in business schools and colleges, and will recommend beginning the internationalization of the business curriculum.

INTRODUCTION

Establishing rationale and credibility are two major steps in justifying the globalization of business courses. One of the most commonly used concepts is the illustration of the tremendous trade imbalance between the USA and Japan. In addition, journal articles which summarize replicable statistical studies support the need for schools and colleges of business to globalize. These are the obvious tools, but for language educators to persuade their business educator counterparts, there is an additional tool which has been overlooked: the AACSB.

Just when one has decided that every acronym ever thought up has already been explained, another comes along. This paper will teach yet another acronym, and even more importantly it will help the language educator by providing information which will be useful to market and sell business educators on the importance of globalizing.

THE AACSB

The AACSB is the acronym for the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business. It is a not-for-profit corporation devoted to promotion and improvement of higher education in business administration and management. It is composed of 830 educational institutions, corporations and other organizations and provides guidelines to educational institutions in: program, resource and faculty planning. It is the only accrediting agency recognized by the US Department of Education and the Council on Postsecondary Accreditation.

In the 1986-7 membership directory of the AACSB, 245 accredited universities and colleges are listed . They are among the most highly respected schools and colleges of business. Clearly those 245 institutions have direct pressure from the AACSB to maintain their accreditation. In addition, many other institutions are influenced by the AACSB requirements (including the 410 nonacredited members) as they often follow the same or similar standards. Of the members (as of July 1986), 655 are domestic and 65 are international educational institutions.

> Member countries include: Australia, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Colombia, Costa Rica, Federal Republic of Germany, France, Ghana, Italy, Kuwait, Lebanon, Mexico, The Netherlands, Peru, Saudi Arabia, the Republic of South Africa, Spain, Switzerland, Tunisia, United Kingdom (England & Scotland and the United States of America).

Accreditation

The AACSB accreditation standards represent a voluntary effort of schools by a peer review process. Of the 1,200 colleges and universities in the USA which offer undergraduate business degrees, 245 are currently accredited. Of the over 600 master's level progrms, 206 are accredited. Accreditation means that a business school has met minimum standards in: faculty resources and qualifications, student abilities, intellectual climate, admissions policy, degree requirements, library and computer facilities, physical plant and financial resources.

Curriculum standards require that students study in depth:

> mathematics, communication, social sciences and humanities, marketing, finance, economics, legal environment, accounting, quantitatiave methods, management information systems, organizational and behavioral theory, international business and ethics.

Accredited institutions are visited and evaluated periodically by an accrediting committee.

Additional concerns of AACSB

Besides the primary task of accreditation, the AACSB offers awards and fellowships to students, professors and institutions. There is also an annual meeting, held April 12-15 in 1987, and there are seminars and meetings sponsored throughout the year. There are committees and additional activities too, such as the "Program to Increase Minorities in Business".

Publications

In addition, there are helpful publications available from the AACSB. Appendix 1 of this paper lists publications available from the AACSB. Examples include: "New Directions for Business Communication", "Management For the XXI Century", and "Case Studies of Internationalization of the Business School Curriculum".

The case study publication describes strategies followed by several business schools to internationalize the curriculum. Schools include: University of Lowell, SUNY-Buffalo, University of Connecticut, and The Ohio State University. The descriptions along with the conclusion, "Strategies for Internationaliziang the Curriculum", would be especially helpful for language educators in planning strategies to help their associated business schools.

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The AACSB also publishes a newsletter, Newsline. The February 1987 issue includes "Toward Internationalization: A commitment, a plan, a faculty intiative" in which information on how to proceed in the process of internationalization is presented. In the same issue is a helpful resource list compiled by the AACSB.

Significance

The information on the AACSB has been presented because it may prove useful to the language educator who wishes to help the business educator to internationalize the curriculum. There is no question in the minds of language educators nor in the minds of most business educators whether globalization is important. It is clearly vital to the survival of business that incoming employees can manage organizations efficiently in this day of increased contact with people of other cultures.

The AACSB presents a strong viewpoint for language educators to have their point heard and acted upon. As the accrediting agency for so many schools and colleges of business, the AACSB carries prestige and influence. If the language educator is familiar with the organization and its function, credibility is enhanced. As in any sound market survey, background analysis is important. A business educator will be positively influenced if the persuasive language educator knows the territory. Part of the territory in this case is the AACSB.

CONCLUSION

According to the AACSB pamphlet on accreditation policies, procedures and standards "There is no intention that any single approach is required to satisfy the worldwide dimension of the Curriculum Standard, but every student should be exposed to the international dimension through one or more elements of the curriculum."(p.28)

As business educators begin to see the need to bring a more worldwide point of view into their classes, many feel uncomfortable. They often support the idea but have little or no idea how to incorporate this idea of globalization into their existing courses. Just as many language educators have limited knowledge about business, many business educators lack knowledge about different cultures and about how cultural variables influence business.

In many institutions of higher learning, where there is a business curriculum, there is also a foreign language curriculum. This presents an obvious opportunity for language educators and business educators to help each other. If a diplomatic approach is used, there should be little resistance from business educators to the offer of help from educators who have experience and knowledge which can be incorporated into a more internationalized business curriculum. This effort will benefit everyone--most especially the students. In order for this to happen, language educators should become familiar with the AACSB requirements. They should then formulate strategies to help meet the goals of the AACSB and the business areas. Additional help could come from departments of history, political science, and anthropology. But a first step is to become familiar with AACSB requirements plus the business curriculum in one's own institution.

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A LANGUAGE EDUCATOR'S FIRST SALE: TO GLOBALIZE BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

Jean L. Bush-Bacelis

Department of Management

Eastern Michigan University

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ABSTRACT

Business Communication, a required course for most colleges and schools of business, may be the best place for language educators to begin to help globalize the curriculum. In this course students are taught communication theory, business writing, oral business communication, leadership, meeting participation and various functions used in daily business. This paper describes how this course is currently being internationalized and how language educators could help their business colleagues. In business communication, students must become prepared to solve business problems in ways which consider cultural variance as an important variable. In business communication, a business educator can discuss problem prevention or at least problem minimization as it relates to written, oral and nonverbal communication in the workplace. It is here that the language educator can be of most help.

INTRODUCTION

Business communication is a required course at Eastern Michigan University in the College of Business and at most other colleges and universities. Following will be a description of the EMU course, an explanation of how we have attempted to internationalize it and how very much remains to be accomplished. Language educators can be a valuable resource for business educators, but business educators must be sold on the idea. The plan for marketing the language educator's ideas and skills will conclude this paper.

DESCRIPTION

At Eastern Michigan University, approximately 4,000 students have declared one of the undergraduate business majors. All are required to take the business communication course which is taught in the Management Department. In addition, business communication is required in several other campus majors and it is sometimes taken as an elective. It is a sophomore level course which is required prior to admission into the College of Business and prior to taking junior and senior level courses. In the fall and winter semesters usually eighteen sections of 32 students are filled and in spring 4 sections with summer semester usually filling 3 or 4 sections. Normally about 1,400 students take the course per year.

In the course, students are evaluated upon written and oral communication and upon knowledge of theory. They are required to write a good deal, including memoranda, letters, reports, critiques and evaluations. Students are also tested upon course content and upon their ability to present ideas orally. Course content includes the following categories: communication theory and concepts; written communication; oral communication; interpersonal communication; organizational communication; and intercultural/international communication. Each category is allotted a number of class periods as indicated in figure 1.(see appendix) Also in the same figure one can view the sub topics which are covered by all instructors in business communication.

INTERNATIONALIZATION

As can be seen, the last category in figure 1 is intercultural/international communication. According to the charge of the accrediting organization, the AACSB, all member schools must globalize all courses. Clearly this audience does not have to be sold upon this concept; but colleagues in colleges and schools of business need some convincing of the concept and they need help in implemeting this change. Currently at Eastern Michigan University, all business communication classes view at least two of the fine videotapes produced by Griggs and Copeland entitled "Going International". These tapes are available for viewing this evening and I urge the audience members to view them. We have found them to be an excellent resource for use with undergraduate students who lack experience and contact with other cultures.

In addition, in my own business communication course, I discuss some of the variables of intercultural contact throughout the course. Because I have a foreign language background plus foreign living experience, I am able to integrate the concepts within the entire course. They are included in my class discussion of theory, of written communication, of oral communication, of interpersonal communication, and of organizational communication. Not all business educators however, are lucky enough to have such a diverse background; most do not. Therefore many of us simply play the tapes, lead a discussion and then close the issue.

Language educators know better than that. The issue cannot simply be closed and shelved. Our students need cultural competence in order to survive and flourish in today's business. This must be continuously reinforced. As has been said, there really is no difference now in domestic and international business. All business is international and in all business dealings we must communicate with people of other cultures. Therefore students and professors of business must both be urged to integrate cultural concepts throughout the course.

MARKETING

In the business communication course, students are asked to research and write an analytical report. Language educators should go through much the same process. They must do an assessment, develop and market a plan and evaluate that plan.

Audience Analysis

In the first step, the audience must be analyzed. The audience in this case is the course, the text, the professors.

Appropriate questions would include:

- * Is this course one which can be globalized? (nature of the content)
- * Are there particular portions of the course which lend themselves more easily to being globalized? (content)
- * Is there likely to be resistance to globalizing this course? (professors, students, departments)
- * Does the text refer to globalization and could this be built upon? (text)

Product Analysis

The product in this case is the language educator. What skills does the language educator possess which could be useful in helping colleagues globlalize their courses? Is the language educator familiar with the leading business journals such as the Harvard Business Review, the Academy of Management Journal and even the Wall Street Journal? Just as the language of .sales and marketing is the language of the client or customer, the language of this sale is the language of the business educator. A familiarity with the language is easy to acquire. Most libraries have the major business journals. Additional language can be acquired from other faculty and from texts.

Development of sales plan

Based upon the language educator's evaluation of self, and of the course and its variables, a plan for globalization must be developed. Along with that, the language educator must develop a strategy for how to present the plan to faculty. Should it be a bit by bit, gradual introduction of an article here and there, or should it be a major "dog and pony" show to all the department? Or should it be somewhere in between? One aspect of the success of any plan would be the openness of the language educator to modification of the plan. If the business faculty want to "own" or accept part of the responsibility for the change, there must be open channels of communication for the language educator to be receptive to these changes. Open communication doesn't just miraculously happen; structure must be in place to encourage it and attitudes must reflect a team approach, not strictly the idea that the language educator will enlighten the "ignorant" business educator!

Implementation and follow-up

Once the feedback has been gathered and utilized, the plan which seems most appropriate for the situation should be put in place. It is important for the language educator to maintain contact with colleagues to help with problems and to encourage and support. Change is always difficult and business educators are prone to the same problems as others. In addition, after the semester or quarter is complete, the language and business educators must work together to assess what went right and what should be modified to be more effective.

CONCLUSION

Because of the nature of the content, the business communication course is an excellent place to globalize. Use of videotapes such as "Going International" is a sound beginning. But in order to integrate the intercultural concepts throughout the course, help must be given to business educators. Many are at a loss to know how to globalize their courses and as is true with any change, it is threatening. Therefore the perceptive language educator will develop the appropriate persuasive strategy in conjunction with the business colleagues.

There is no more important issue to schools and colleges of business today. The AACSB urges us to globalize, as do businesses and as do the journals. The biggest problem is in knowing how to go about this process. It is here that the language educator can be of invaluable help. When business and language educators work together, students benefit, the educators and their respective departments benefit, and even the shrinking world will benefit from improved understanding.

APPENDIX

MANAGEMENT 202
BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

Course Content:

- A.Communication Theory/Concepts (6)*
  - 1.Definitions, theories, models
  - 2.Technologically mediated communication
  - 3.Perception
  - 4.Language/Semantics
  - 5.Nonverbal/Intercultural Communication
  - 6.Audience Analysis
  - 7.Listening
  - 8.Ethical & Legal Considerations
  - 9.Audience Analysis
- B.Written Communication (21)*
  - 1.Receiver/Audience Analysis
  - 2.Organization & Logical Development
  - 3.Style, Tone, Readability
  - 4.Credibility (ethics)
  - 5.Problem Solving Approaches
  - 6.Persuasive Strategies/Consensus Making
  - 7.Direct requests, good & bad news, persuasive & goodwill --letters and memos
  - 8.Informational and Analytical reports
  - 9.Resumes & Application letters
  - 10.Graphics
- C.Oral Communication (9)*
  - 1.Interviewing
  - 2.Individual presentations
  - 3.Group presentations
  - 4.Visual Aids
- D.Interpersonal Communication (3)*
  - 1.Transactional Communication
  - 2.Group Problem Solving
  - 3.Meeting Management & Agenda Setting
- E.Organizational Communication (3)*
  - 1.Formal and Informal Channels and Barriers
  - 2.Staff Function
  - 3.Managerial/Leadership Style
- F.Intercultural/International Business Communication
  - 1.Stereotypes
  - 2.Acculturation
  - 3.Culture Shock

* Each number refers to the approximate number of 50 minute class periods devoted to that subject matter in a 15 week semester.

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A COMPREHENSIVE APPROACH TO TEACHING FOREIGN BUSINESS PRACTICES

by

Deirdre Mendez, Ph.D.

A Comprehensive Approach to Teaching Foreign Business Practices

In recent years, American business educators and consultants have faced an increasing challenge to provide time-effective and practical instruction concerning foreign business practices. A great deal of effort has been made to provide information to the business community, but the need to develop a methodology for presenting this information in an effective and empowering manner has been largely overlooked.

Businesspeople or students preparing to do business abroad for the first time need guidance in two principal areas: in order to behave appropriately in an unfamiliar environment they need to become familiar with the protocol associated with a variety of business contexts, and in order to understand the attitudes of others and the feedback they receive from them, they need information concerning the factors that shape the behavior of businesspeople in the foreign country. This paper outlines a methodology designed to explain the interrelation between behavior and culture, and to make clear the function of the businessperson in his dual role as representative of his own interests, and adaptable business partner. My own area of specialization is Japan, and the examples I will use involve Japanese business practices, but the framework is equally applicable to other business cultures.

Two approaches to teaching foreign business practices have predominated in the literature on the subject in the past decade. Consultants and authors fall into two general categories: They provide information based on practical experience, as is often the case with the publications of business professionals, or they base their advice on their knowledge of the culture of the country in question, as is the case with many academic authors and consultants.

Each of these approaches results in a methodology with a particular bias. Authors and consultants whose expertise derives from practical experience often provide lists of "tips" - of do's and dont's for interaction in the country in question. According to this approach, an American businessperson or student traveling to Japan might be advised not to call his Japanese hosts by their first names, to remove his shoes when entering a tatami mat room, and not to open gifts in the presence of others. The "useful tips" method has the advantage of conveying specific instructions in a short time, and the disadvantage of a lack of continuity. A client advised in this fashion is prepared for a very specific set of situations, but has no tools with which to develop strategies for dealing with the unfamiliar situations that inevitably arise in foreign business negotiations. A second drawback of this methodology is that it focuses on behavior alone, and fails to address the cultural considerations underlying the behavior. Clients must follow the advice of author or consultant blindly, without knowing why they do what they do.

Without an understanding of the motivations for the behaviors they will encounter abroad, they will be at a disadvantage in situations which require them to interpret others' intentions, reactions and motives.

The approach to teaching foreign business practices typically taken by academic authors and consultants focuses on the culture and traditions of the country to be visited. According to this approach, a client traveling to Japan might be given lessons on the Japanese concepts of obligation, conformity and respect for rank. This methodology has the advantage of providing clients with information they can use to analyze the behavior they observe in cointeractants, but often has the disadvantage of failing to provide them with guidance for their own behavior. Clients who have been prepared in this manner often feel that they must discard their native culture and behave strictly according to the norms of the foreign culture. Furthermore, they are often at a loss to understand how the cultural patterns discussed interrelate to shape the behavior of foreign natives. Because of the linear manner in which cultural patterns are typically presented, clients may not know which cultural consideration takes priority when two are in conflict. For example, given the Japanese priority of fulfilling obligations to others, and the emphasis placed on participation in group activities, it may not be clear whether one should cancel a previously made appointment in order to participate in a group activity, or whether to bow out of the activity in order to keep the appointment. A three-dimensional framework which considers cultural patterns as they relate to one another and shape the behavior of cultural natives is essential to providing the means for dealing with the complexity of intercultural business interaction.

The methodology proposed here to educate students and businesspeople is to some degree a synthesis of these two methods. It introduces the student or client to cultural patterns responsible for the way business is conducted abroad, and makes recommendations to the client concerning appropriate behavior for specific situations. However, it treats general culture and specific behavior as interrelated facets of a greater whole. It provides a framework in relation to which the two are considered together, along with the client's responsibility to the foreign norms he will encounter. This integrative teaching methodology, or ITM, addresses issues which are typically ignored in other frameworks. One of these issues is to what degree clients are expected to alter their behavior in order to conform to foreign norms. Clients are understandably hesitant to relinquish behaviors that have served them well throughout their lives and adopt others on the advice of an author or consultant. It is important that a client's goal be not to successfully impersonate a native of the foreign country, but to develop an understanding of the differences in attitudes and behavior he will encounter in that country, in order to avoid doing things that serve as symbols of rudeness or bad taste, and to convey the message that he possesses the qualities that are desired in a business partner by members of the business community there, just as he would at home. Furthermore, the ITM methodology is designed to equip clients to assess situations not addressed in their training, to discern cultural patterns for themselves and to devise strategies for dealing with them on their own - to become, in a limited sense, cultural anthropologists.

The ITM approach comprises seven stages. First, clients are made familiar with a cultural pattern which shapes behavior and attitudes in the country in question. Second, business traditions, norms and rituals associated with this pattern are identified. In stage three, attitudes and behaviors related to that cultural pattern are introduced. In stage four, the issue of the client's own behavior in situations in which this cultural priority is operating is considered. Each of a set of cultural patterns is thus discussed in light of of rituals and traditions, behaviors and attitudes clients will come across, and strategies they may use so as not to violate important cultural norms. This progression is designed to acquaint clients with cultural patterns in such a way that they are perceived not as abstract concepts, but as real-life considerations that motivate the choices made by natives of that culture, and which shape their attitudes towards conducting business.

Once clients are acquainted with a set of cultural patterns and the behaviors that stem from them, the question of conflicting priorities is discussed. In stage five, situations are described in which a choice must be made to behave in a way consistent with one of two conflicting patterns, and clients are asked to identify the cultural issues present and devise strategies for resolving the conflict. Stress is placed not on making the right choice, but on developing a sensitivity to the issues raised in the scenarios, so that the cultural priority not honored by the choice can be addressed in some other way - through apology, rescheduling an appointment, or whatever, so that the business relationship is not damaged. This step is designed to empower clients to make educated decisions concerning their own behavior in light of the norms of the culture in question. In doing so, they are not pretending to be members of that culture, but are simply reacting to what they recognize as the priorities presented by the situation. It is not contrary to American values to choose to go out to dinner with business associates when one is very tired, if those associates feel a need to cement the personal relationship between them. What makes the educated American businessperson in Japan different from the naive one is his awareness that developing a relationship of respect and mutual trust is an important priority for his Japanese associates, based on his knowledge of Japanese business culture. At the same time, he must make his own needs for business clear, so that the interaction will be a mutually satisfying one.

In stage six, a scenario is described in which behaviors not previously discussed are presented to clients. They are asked to suggest possible motivations for these behaviors, based on the cultural awareness they have developed, and to develop strategies for dealing with them successfully. They learn to analyze others' behavior in light of their training, and to judge others' attitudes and reactions accordingly.

Finally, clients are taught to become observers and analysts of the foreign business culture, and are freed from the limitations of the specific instruction they have been given. This is a particularly important feature of the ITM approach, because it is impossible to prepare a businessperson for every situation he might encounter. Once clients have the tools necessary to develop an understanding of the foreign culture on their own, they are able to function abroad with much less coaching than would be necessary otherwise, and need not rely on the necessarily incomplete lists of tips that are often recommended when time is short.

To demonstrate the ITM process, the following is an abridged example of the development of a client's analytical skills. As before, the examples are taken from Japanese business culture.

Stage 1: A client might be provided with information concerning two cultural priorities encountered in Japanese business interactions such as the following:

a) It is a cultural priority in Japan not to impose on others.

b) The Japanese avoid contributing to the loss of face of others.

Stage 2: After a discussion of these patterns, the client would be made familiar with associated behaviors and attitudes. These might take the following form:

The Japanese are careful not to impose their feelings on one another. They avoid showing emotion, and tend to keep their opinions to themselves. They are hesitant to ask others for favors, and are quick to retract requests if they seem inconvenient for others. They avoid overt criticism of others' behavior or ideas.

The behavioral manifestations of these two cultural patterns thus limit straightforward communication between interactants.

Stage 3: Rituals or traditions that relate to the cultural patterns identified in Step 1 are now introduced. An example of such a ritual might be the way the Japanese circumvent the aforementioned norms in order to develop interpersonal relations with one another. It might be pointed out that it is very important to Japanese business that close interpersonal ties be formed among potential business associates, and that this is difficult, as long as participants are observing the conventions for not imposing on one another. Clients would learn that to facilitate the development of interpersonal relationships, the drinking party has become institutionalized as a safe context for self expression, that when participating in social drinking, honest and open interaction is in order, and that it is a convention that what one says under the influence of alcohol may not be held against him.

Stage 4: Appropriate behaviors for the client are considered in this stage. It might be pointed out, for example, that since complaints are considered an imposition on others, one should refrain from discussing irritations and problems openly. Bluntness should be avoided, and criticism even of people not present should be very indirectly stated. By the same token, a client invited to participate in a drinking excursion would be advised to accept if possible, and to participate in the drinking, to speak more honestly and freely than usual, and to be prepared to receive important communication from his Japanese counterparts.

Stage 5: At this point, a scenario is described in which two priorities appear to be in conflict. An instance of such a scenario might be one in which straightforward communication with a Japanese contact seems essential to dealing with a negotiations problem that worries the client. Given the cultural limitations on such communication, the client would be asked how one might approach a Japanese contact on a one-to-one basis and facilitate more direct interaction. A list of solutions would be elicited and discussed. None of these would be considered the "right" answer, but would be discussed rather as possibilities whose effectiveness could depend on many other factors. The ITM method stresses the need for the client's constant observation of his business associates' attitudes towards the business interaction, and his assessment of what will be appropriate, given the many variables operating in any social situation.

Stage 6: The next step in preparing a client involves confronting him with with a behavior that has not yet been discussed. He will attempt to interpret it in light of the cultural patterns he has learned about, and devise strategies for dealing with the situation in which the behavior arises. Such a scenario might take the following form: The client makes a suggestion to a Japanese business partner, who replies that while it is a good suggestion, there might be some problems if it is carried out. When asked to be more specific about the nature of these problems, the contact becomes embarrassed and uncommunicative. The client would be asked what might account for this behavior, and what might be done to resolve the potential conflict.

The client might observe that, given the cultural priorities of not imposing on others and of not causing others to lose face through criticism, his Japanese counterpart might be trying to indicate indirectly that the suggestion is not a good one, so as not to hurt the client's feelings. Under these circumstances, it would be inappropriate to press the contact for an answer. Alternatives might include asking him for suggestions of his own, or asking whether he knew of anyone else who might be able to help, and so on.

The scenarios presented here appear very two-dimensional, given the limited number of cultural patterns discussed. In the course of normal training, a client would be introduced to a range of cultural patterns, any of which might be in part responsible for the behavior others exhibit, and for the particular alternatives which would be acceptable solutions to a given problem. Obviously, the more cultural patterns, attitudes, traditions and so on the client is familiar with, the better equipped he will be to deal with real-life situations. However, once the framework of interaction between culture and practice has been established, his ability to problem solve increases considerably as he acquires new pieces of the cultural puzzle.

Stage 7: The final step in preparing a client for interaction in a foreign culture is to advise him on ways to gather and analyze information for himself when consulting services are not available. In this stage, clients learn to identify behaviors they are not familiar with, and to enlist the aid of a native of the culture in question. Clients must be trained to ask questions that will help their informants identify cultural factors that the informants themselves may not be aware of. They must investigate whether or not the behavior is perceived by informants as normal or idiosyncratic, and if it seems normal, they should try to discern the cultural factors responsible for it. If they are able to isolate a cultural pattern, they can then integrate it into the network of patterns they are already familiar with, and thereby enhance their ability to interpret and respond to interactive behavior of members of the culture in general.

By addressing intercultural business interaction as a whole, the ITM method provides clients with information they can use immediately in situations they encounter abroad, and in the long term as well. By using the techniques it provides, clients are able to develop a holistic characterization of the foreign culture, which they can develop as their interactions abroad continue. This helps free them from the limitations of training programs and consultation services, and lessens the need for repeated consultation.

Training programs on international business sometimes give the impression that success in international business requires the development of saint-like tolerance for others' incomprehensible behavior. The ITM method, in contrast, effectively reduces the incomprehensibility aspect by familiarizing the client with the cultural factors responsible for the behavior, and by demonstrating the relationship between culture and behavior in general. As clients develop an understanding of foreign practices, they become increasingly comfortable with them, and are thus empowered to meet the demands and challenges of international business, and to achieve success in the foreign marketplace.

Biography

Deirdre Brown Mendez, a native of Florida, received a PhD from the University of Texas at Austin in sociolinguistics. She is the director of Foreign Business Management Consultants, a Texas-based firm which educates American companies about Japanese business practices. She is a lecturer in the department of French and Italian at the University of Texas.

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HOW TO INTERNATIONALIZE THE FINANCE CURRICULUM?

by

Dr. Ramesh C. Garg,
Professor of Finance and
Int'l Business
Department of Accounting and Finance,
Eastern Michigan University,
Ypsilanti, Michigan 48197
Tel: (313) 487-1350 or
(313) 487-3320

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HOW TO INTERNATIONALIZE THE FINANCE CURRICULUM?

Virtually every manufacturing and service industry in the United States is involved in some form of international business today. So many of the U.S. business firms are increasingly involved in the world economy. This has created a need for qualified managers, who should be able to assume international business responsibilities. Furthermore, there are increasing numbers of foreign multinationals which are now operating within the United States. Recent statistics suggest that there are more private direct investments coming into the United States from overseas than United States multinationals going abroad. According to the United States Department of Commerce estimates, the value of foreign direct investment in the United States was $159.6 billion in 1984. The 1984 investment numbers represent a continuation of the recent strong year-to-year increases in foreign investment in the United States, and the shift in the magnitude of new foreign direct investment in the U.S. relative to new U.S. direct investment abroad. It was the fourth consecutive year in which additions to the value of foreign direct investment in the United States exceeded additions to U.S. direct investment abroad.[1] However, it seems ironic that the bulk of U.S. business schools have been so slow in responding to the international needs of the American as well as the foreign multinationals operating in the U.S. business community.

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[1] For further analysis of foreign direct investment in the U.S., see International Letter, Federal Reserve Bank of Chicago, (Jan. 1986) Number 554.

Inertia, "a belief that domestic and international business are the same," and a lack of qualified international business faculty members are some of the explanations cited for such woefully slow progress towards internationalizing the business curriculum. Now, with the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) calling for an international dimension in the business curriculum among its accreditation guidelines, many business schools are preparing to take further steps necessary to internationalize their programs.

Why to Internationalize the Finance Curriculum?

With the breakdown of the post-World War II system of fixed exchange rates in the early seventies, the world economy is now subjected to a new era of fluctuating exchange rates. Since then, International Business Finance has become an increasingly important subject for study and research. The value of most major currencies now fluctuates from moment to moment depending on the demand and supply conditions. In addition, this post-World War II period, international trade and investment have grown much faster (7% per annum, real terms) than the world economy (5% per annum) and, therefore, have become much more significant. It is estimated that currently more than a quarter of the world's GNP moves across national borders. As another example of the increased importance of international finance, the weekly volume of trading in the foreign exchange markets now far exceeds the annual trading volume of the world's stock exchanges and the gross size of the Eurodollar market now rivals M2, the U.S. domestic money supply!

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Methodology: The Process of Internationalizing.

The process of internationalizing the Finance curricula may call for a variety of techniques or routes some of which many render results qualifying from a "minimum" to a "substantial" degree of internationalization. With the flexibility and qualitative interpretation of the AACSB standards, it is extremely difficult to pin point a universal strategy which may apply to all the business schools. Much of it also depends upon who takes the initiative - The Faculty, Department Heads or the Dean. The scope of my investigation is kept limited to the faculty level. I have identified the following strategies which the Finance faculty can use in internationalizing the curriculum:

(A) Minimum Level of Internationalization:

This is what one may call a "quick fix" or a "lip service" approach to the process of internationalization. This approach calls for the following things which an instructor can do in his or her classroom.

(i) Invite a Guest Lecturer from the Industry:

This plan calls for inviting a guest lecturer in the classroom who may have some exposure to the international area, e.g. the export manager of a firm, vice president in charge of international operations or a foreign exchange specialist working in a bank and so on. Such a lecture may help increase awareness among the students of the international aspects with the stipulation that they will further explore the international dimensions on their own.

(ii) Invite a Colleague as a Guest Lecture:

Another possibility under this strategy is to invite a colleague who specializes in the international area as a guest lecturer and have him or her address the students on one or more topics. Of course, the access to such lectures on an on-going basis depends upon the availability of qualified faculty in the department. Occasionally, one can also invite guest faculty from nearby universities.

(B) Substantial Level of Internationalization:

This approach may include just about every possible thing which can be done to internationalize the Finance curriculum. Some of the suggested possibilities are as follows:

(1) Courses in International Finance Area:

All the Finance majors should be required to take at least one or more courses in the International Finance Area. These courses may include Multinational Business Finance, International Banking, International Economics, and/or International Trade Theories and Practices.

(2) Internationalizing the Existing Curricula:

The Finance curricula in Business Schools is normally comprised of courses in the areas of Corporate Finance, Financial Institutions and Investments. The traditional material available in each area fails to adequately cover the international dimensions.

The purpose of this paper is to identify strategies and methodologies to internationalize the existing Finance curriculum. Such an approach will provide students with a broader knowledge of firms operating in the "real world," not limited to just one country. Supplemental material consisting of bibliographies, case studies, journal articles and excerpts from various books and other sources will have to be identified, collected and kept as resource material. The following section provides a scheme to internationalize the Finance curricula for each area of Corporate Finance, Financial Institutions and Investments.

(A) Corporate Finance:

The Introductory Principles of Finance Course

This course provides a common body of knowledge in the area of Finance to undergraduate and graduate students. The following outline somewhat reflects the contents of a common introductory course in Finance without internationalization.

TABLE OF CONTENTS: CORPORATE FINANCE COURSE WITHOUT INTERNATIONALIZATION

I. The Financial Environment
    A. The Goal of Finance
    B. Theories of Value
    C. The Legal, Operating, and Tax Environment
    D. Financial Intermediaries and Markets

II. Basic Financial Concepts
    A. The Time Value of Money
    B. Risk, Return and Value
    C. Leverage, Operating, Financial and Total

III. Techniques of Financial Analysis and Planning
    A. The Analysis of Financial Statements
    B. Financial Planning

IV. The Management of Working Capital

- A. Cash and Marketable Security Management
- B. Accounts Receivable and Inventory Management
- C. Sources of Short-Term Financing

V. Fixed-Asset Management and Capital Budgeting

- A. Capital Budgeting Techniques: Certainty and Risk

VI. Cost of Capital, Capital Structure, and Dividends

- A. The Cost of Capital
- B. Capital Structure
- C. Dividend Policy

VII. Sources of Long-Term Financing

- A. Long Term Debt
- B. Preferred and Common Stock
- C. Leasing
- D. Warrants and Convertibles

VIII. Expansion and Failure

- A. Consolidations, Mergers, and Holding Companies
- B. Failure, Reorganization, and Liquidation

The problem with the above outline is not its contents or its organization because a general agreement seems to exist among Finance professors about this content. (Of course, the presentation of material has always been the prerogative of the instructor.) The major problem I foresee, is that not enough time exists in a three credit hour course within a semester to cover all the topics as mentioned in the above outline. As it stands now, one may be currently cutting out about 15 to 20 percent of the portions: some portions by general agreement; some because of personal choice and some because of the expertise of the instructor.

The possible solutions to the internationalization of the introductory Finance course may fall into the following categories:

A. A "Zero Sum" Approach:

1. Substitute international contents for the existing contents.
2. Expand the course to two three-credit hour courses in the core requirements by replacing some other course. This would allow enough breathing room to provide a full coverage of the current contents plus an excellent coverage of international contents.

B. Recommended Approach:

1. Expand the introductory Finance course to a four-credit hour course. This would accomplish the task specified in #2 at a respectable level.
2. If none of the above approaches are feasible, a faculty member should be designated for this task on a full-time basis who will rotate in different Finance classes to do the job. Internationalization is an additional load clearly equivalent to an F.T.E.F. This will be an interim measure in the direction of internationalization until other options become feasible.

A Proposed Outline for Introductory Corporate Finance Course After Internationalization

The following is a partial list of topics which should be incorporated in the Introductory Finance Course in order to internationalize its contents:

- I. The Financial Environment
    - A. Multinational Finance: An Overview
        - a. Foreign Ownership
        - b. Foreign Exchange Risks
        - c. Multinational Accounting
        - d. Multinational Capital Markets
    - B. Multinational Finance: Legal and Tax Environment
        - a. Legal Forms of Business
        - b. International Taxes
    - C. International Financial Markets:
        - a. Growth of Euro Markets
        - b. The Major Participants
- II. Basic Financial Concepts
    - A. International Risks
        - a. Foreign Exchange Risks
        - b. Political Risks
- III. Techniques of Financial Analysis and Planning
    - A. International Consolidation
        - a. Consolidation
        - b. Translation of Individual Accounts
        - c. International Profits
- IV. The Management of Working Capital
    - A. International Working Capital Management
        - a. International Cash Management
        - b. International Accounts Receivable Management
        - c. International Inventory Management
        - d. International Short-Term Financing
- V. Fixed Assets Management and Capital Budgeting
    - A. International Capital Budgeting and Cash Flows
- VI. Cost of Capital and Capital Structure
    - A. International Capital Structure

VII. Sources of Long-Term Financing

- A. International Long-Term Debt
  - a. International Bonds
  - b. International Financial Institutions
  - c. Interest Rates in Euro Dollar and Asian Dollar Markets
- B. International Equity Capital
  - a. Multinational Issues
  - b. Underwriting
  - c. Competition
- C. International Leasing Operations
  - a. Expropriation
  - b. Devaluation
  - c. Tax Aspects

VIII. Expansion and Failure

- A. International Mergers and Acquisitions
  - a. Valuation
  - b. The Cunitz Model
  - c. The Selection Process
  - d. Financial Statement Problems
  - e. Potential Impact on Capital Structure

Course: The Advance Course in Financial Management

The advance level course in the area of corporate finance is sometimes taught by faculty as exclusive case course where students are required to apply their knowledge of finance theory to problem solving situations.

The solution to internationalize such a course seems to pose least difficulty. Given a set of cases from a textbook, the instructor should choose at least 20 percent of such cases from international area. For example, the following international cases are available in the most widely used textbook for the case course by J. Keith Butters et. al., Case Problems in Finance:

(1) Pechiney Ugine Kuhlmann - Cebal

(2) Carrefour, S. A.

(3) Verenigde Machinefabrieken Stork N. V.

In addition to the above list of "Harvard style" cases, a number of shorter, single-issue cases are also available. Furthermore, simulation games, particularly emphasizing foreign exchange risk, have been developed by some of the authors from INSEAD, Fontainebleau, France.

(B) Financial Markets and Institutions:

Courses: Financial Markets
Commercial Banking
Business Financial Markets

These are upper division elective courses primarily concentrating in the area of Financial Markets, Banking and Institutions. Approximately 20 to 25 percent of these courses should be internationalized by assigning additional reading materials. Topics covered should include foreign exchange rates; parity condition explaining the behavior of exchange rates; the economics of comparative advantage and world trade; effects of free trade and protectionism; the characteristics of international financial markets including institutions, participants, instruments and regulations or the lack of regulations; the impact of international financial environment on domestic financial environment, and vice versa. As a part of course requirement, student may do a research paper on an international topic.

In the Institutional area, one can explore International Banking by examining the functions of multinational American banks operating abroad, Edge Act Corporations, eurodollars and domestically based international banking facilities. A number of good cases in the field of International Banking are now available which can be used to supplement the domestic contents.

(C) Investments:

Courses: Investments
Portfolio Management
Securities Analysis

These courses are offered to students in the area of investments. The world economy is now becoming closer than ever before. An investor in the United States may wish to participate in the growth opportunities available in other countries. How one can go about investing in Japanese or Korean companies without having to go over there? What are the implications of such investments in terms of risks and returns to an investor? How can a United States corporation take advantage of lower cost of borrowings by floating bonds in the Euro dollar market or the Asian dollar market? What different mutual funds are available which specialize in investing overseas stock and bond markets? These are some of the international issues which are relevant to a business student taking investment courses.

One of the main areas investigated in the Investment literature deals with the concept of risk. The basic concepts concerning risk and uncertainty remain unchanged when entering into the international arena. But this does not mean that the nature of the risks or uncertainties are the same. It is far from it. International business and investments face additional risks such as currency rate fluctuations, differential inflation rates in different countries, exchange controls, import and tariff controls, varying tax rates, and risks of expropriation.

Given the degree of added risks in the international arena, it goes without saying that higher-risk investments should yield higher returns. It is often suggested that foreign investments should promise higher returns compared to their domestic counterparts before one can invest in such ventures. In the international arena, therefore, one needs to examine the total risk picture - not just the risk of a single project or the risks in a single country.

Recent studies now indicate that an investor can improve risk-return trade offs by holding an internationally diversified portfolio of securities as compared with a domestically diversified portfolio. However, investors typically have only limited knowledge about foreign securities due to a number of reasons such as lack of information, inadequate disclosure requirements, unfamiliarity with foreign investment institutional practices and security markets. Investors also lack confidence in their ability to judge foreign exchange and political risks.

It has been suggested that the shares of multinational corporations, whose activities are already internationally diversified, can serve as a surrogate investment vehicles for an investor desiring to hold an optimally diversified international portfolio. Furthermore, many multinationals are diversified both by industry and by country. An additional benefit they provide is diversification of foreign-exchange and political risks. There is certainly going to be some reduction in the overall and systematic risk because project returns in different countries in different continents are not likely to be perfectly correlated with each other even if all the projects are in the same industry.

Shares of a number of mutual funds which invest into securities of a particular foreign country are now being traded on the U.S. stock exchanges. For example, shares of both the Japan Fund, Inc., the Korea Fund, Inc., the Mexico Fund Inc., the Italy Fund, Inc., etc. are traded on the New York Stock Exchange. These funds invest in the securities of companies in the respective countries, and pass on the dividends to the investors in U.S. dollars. Following is a partial list of mutual funds available in the U.S. which specialize in investing into foreign securities:

(1) Alliance International Fund
(2) Canadian Fund
(3) Dean Witter World Wide Investment Fund
(4) G.T. Pacific Fund
(5) International Investors
(6) Kemper International
(7) Keystone International Fund
(8) Mass. Fin. International Bond TR-BD Portfolio
(9) Merrill Lynch Pacific Fund
(10) Permanent Portfolio Fund
(11) T. Rowe Price International Fund
(12) Putnam International Equities Fund
(13) Scudder International Fund
(14) Templeton Foreign Fund
(15) Templeton Global I
(16) Templeton Global II
(17) Templeton World Fund
(18) Transatlantic Fund

(19) Trustees Commingled International
(20) United International Growth Fund
(21) Fidelity Overseas Fund

(3) Faculty/Student Exchange Programs With Overseas Universities:

A third dimension in internationalizing the program is to establish faculty/student exchange programs with one or more overseas schools of business. A number of universities have made significant progress in this direction and rewards seem to be mutually beneficial.

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE SIXTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE
ON
LANGUAGES AND COMMUNICATION FOR
WORLD BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

PART II.

INTERNATIONALIZED PROGRAMS IN BUSINESS, FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND CULTURES

THE B.S. IN FOREIGN LANGUAGES AT MISSISSIPPI STATE UNIVERSITY

by

George Buehler
Professor and Head
Department of Foreign Languages
Mississippi State University

The B.S. in Foreign Languages at Mississippi State University

A. The State of Foreign Languages Before the B.S. in Foreign Languages Program

At the onset of the 1980's the Department of Foreign Languages at Mississippi State University was tetering on the edge of extinction as as independent unit. The number of Foreign Language majors had dwindled to twelve. Enrollment in upper division FL offerings was so low that courses often had to be cancelled. Because of the poor enrollment figures, the Department was subjected to constant scrutiny and time-consuming reviews submitted to the administration and even the Board of Trustees of Institutions of Higher Learning in Mississippi to justify its existence. A merger with the English Department, elimination of graduate and undergraduate degree programs in foreign languages, and a subsequent reduction of faculty positions were imminent unless the deplorable state of foreign languages at Mississippi State was remedied.

B. Strategy for Implementing the B.S. in Foreign Languages Program

To increase prospects for the survival of the Department of Foreign Languages, a pragmatic alternative degree program to the traditional B.A. in Foreign Languages was needed -- a program that attracted students on the basis of job preparedness for available career opportunities in line with long-term projected national needs. A new degree program was needed that took advantage of the call for graduates proficient in foreign languages coupled with expertise in domestic and international business practices that enabled them to function effectively in the arena of world trade, the fastest growing component of the American economy. This call for a new degree program exhititing an imaginative fusion of foreign language and business skills with exposure to the culture, history, and political systems of the country or region of the language specialization to meet current and future career needs is reflected in the B.S. in Foreign Languages degree program at Mississippi State University.

C. The B.S. in Foreign Languages Program:

The B.S. in Foreign Languages degree program requires satisfactory completion of 136 semester hours. Of these, approximately 40 semester hours comprise the required college-wide core curriculum consisting of course work in English composition, mathematics, communication, the natural sciences, the humanities, the social sciences, and the fine arts as a foundation upon which the remaining curriculum consisting of 96 semester hours is tightly structured in an effort to provide students with expertise in four areas of study deemed essential for a career in world trade.

1) Fluency in a Foreign Language: In order to reverse the continuing trade imbalance between the United States and its foreign competitors, it is absolutely essential that American businessmen and women no longer suffer from the self-imposed handicap of monolingualism. It is time to take seriously the admonition by a Japanese business executive that "the language of international business is the language of the customer."

In an effort to break the shackles of monolingualism of future American business people, the first requirement for the fulfillment of the B.S. in Foreign Languages degree program is fluency in one foreign language. To achieve this goal, a minimum of 30 semester hours must be taken in one language (French, German, Spanish). Among these hours is a two-semester, third-year conversation and composition sequence and a two-semester, third-year business-language sequence in addition to traditional course work selected from linguistics, civilization, and literature offerings. It is hoped that by means of this combination of language, business-language, civilization, linguistics, and literature courses the student will attain a degree of foreign-language proficiency to function adequately in a private or business setting on foreign soil.

Fluency in any language, however, can only be achieved through total immersion in the foreign culture. Mindful of this fact, every B.S. in Foreign Languages major at Mississippi State University is strongly encouraged to participate in a Work/Study Spring Semester Abroad Program during their junior or senior year. In this program, sponsored by Educational Programs Abroad, students have the opportunity to earn between nine and fifteen semester hours in history, political science, or economics/international business of the host country while at the same time acquiring valuable hands-on working experience in an international business in Bonn, Paris, or Madrid as determined by the language specialization of the students. This combination of total foreign-language immersion coupled with actual working experience will yield the dual benefit of achieving fluency in the foreign language while providing the student with a decided competitive edge during job placement upon graduation.

2) Proficiency in a Second Foreign Language: Recognizing the fact that most multi-national corporations deal with more than one foreign country, it seemed prudent to require adequate proficiency in a second foreign language from our B.S. in Foreign Languages majors. Although only a minimum of twelve semester hours in the second language is required, most majors progress through the two-semester, third-year conversation and composition sequence. While no one expects to attain

fluency in the second language, it is hoped that each student will acquire enough proficiency in the second language to enable him to carry on basic conversations relating to travel and business while abroad.

3) Expertise in Business/International Business: Equal in importance to acquiring fluency in a foreign language is the attainment of expertise in the area of business and international business practices for successful entry into the arena of domestic and international business. In an effort to prepare students for this dual role, the business component of the B.S. in Foreign Languages program is made up of a mixture of fundamental business courses in economics, accounting, marketing, management, and finance as well as highly specialized courses in international business. A minimum of 30 semester hours of business/international business courses is required. All of these courses are taught in the College of Business and Industry to ensure the integrity of the program. Indeed, the specific courses comprising the business component of this program were selected by the business faculty and approved by the curriculum committee of the College of Business and Industry and its Dean, thereby declaring it adequate in depth and breadth for employment in both domestic and world business ventures.

4) Awareness of the History and Political Sytems of the Country of the First Language: In order for American business people to be more successful on the international scene, they must become more familiar with the mind-set of their potential trading partners. To do this, they must familiarize themselves with the culture and mores of their foreign counterparts as evidenced by their history, customs, and political systems. American business leaders must be less insistent on "doing business our way" and become more sensitive to "doing business their way" or be prepared to "do no business today." To ensure a certain familiarity with

and sensitivity to the historical, sociological, and political factors contributing to the manner of conducting business in a foreign country, students enrolled in the B.S. in Foreign Languages program are required to complete at least six hours in both history and political science pertaining to the country of their first language. It is hoped that this familiarity, cursory though it may be, will sensitize the American business person to alternate, legitimate ways of doing business. It will help him understand and perhaps even admire other peoples' approaches to conducting business that previously appeared alien, if not primitive, to him. This insight might increase mutual trust and understanding between the trading partners which in turn may be the crucial difference between success or failure in consumating a multi-national agreement.

In summary, the B.S. in Foreign Languages degree program at Mississippi State University attempts to fill a long-term need for people interested in careers in international business. By providing a new focus for previously independent courses of study in foreign languages, business-foreign languages, business/international business, history, and political science, the B.S. in Foreign Languages succeeded in blending essential elements needed for effective performance in international business into a new degree program that offers students marketable skills of proven flexibility and relevance with the promise of even greater benefits in the future.

The impact of the B.S. in Foreign Languages degree program on the Department of Foreign Languages has been phenomenal. Since its introduction in 1984, the Department has enjoyed six consecutive records in enrollment. The number of our majors has risen from twelve to sixty-five--an increase of more than 400% in three years. We are frequently cited by the Dean of the College of Arts and Sciences as one of the fastest growing departments on campus. Our existence as an independent Department of Foreign Languages is secure. Faculty morale has turned from downbeat to upbeat. Above all, however, we believe that we are contributing in a meaningful way in the preparation of our students for life and for making a living.

Sample Program

Freshman Year

First Semester

EN 1103 (Eng. Comp. I)	3
FLF/FLG/FLS 1113 (Elem. Language)	3
CO 1003 (Fundamentals of Speech)	3
Fine Arts Elective	3
Natural Science with lab	3
Total Credit Hours	15

Second Semester

EN 1113 (Eng. Comp. II).	3
FLF/FLG/FLS 1123 (Elem. Language)	3
MA 1153 (College Algebra) or higher	3
Natural Science with lab	3
PS 1313 or PS 1513 (Comparative Government of International Relations)	3
Total Credit Hours	15

Sophomore Year

First Semester

FLF/FLG/FLS 1133 (Intermediate Lang.)	3
English Literature	3
EC 1113 (Principles of Economics) .	3
PS 1313 or PS 1513 (Comparative . . Government of Intern'l Relations)	3
History Elective (relating to primary language) . . .	3
ACC 1413 (Acct. Principles I) . . .	3
Total Credit Hours	18

Second Semester

FLF/FLG/FLS 1143 (Intermediate Lang.)	3
Natural Science Elective	3
EC 1123 (Principles of Economics)	3
GR 1103 (Economic Geography). . .	3
ACC 1423 (Acct. Principles II). .	3
History Elective (ralating to primary language) . . .	3
Total Credit Hours	18

Junior Year

First Semester

FLF/FLG 3214; FLS 3211 and FLS 3213 (Conversation and Comp.)	4
FL 2203 (Intro. to Historical and Applied Lingusitics)	3
Second Elementary FL	3
MGT 2113 (Principles of Management)	3
FIN 2223 (Business Finance) . . .	3
FLF/FLG/FLS Elective	3
Total Credit Hours	19

Second Semester

FLF/FLG 3224; FLS 3221 and FLS 3223 (Conversation and Comp.)	4
FLF 5013 (Major Themes or Movements in Comparative Ger. and Rom. Lit.)	3
Second Elementary FL	3
MKT 2313 (Principles of Marketing)	3
GB 3913 (Prin. of Intern'l Bus.)	3
FLF/FLG/FLS Elective	3
Total Credit Hours	19

Senior Year

First Semester

FLF/FLG/FLS 3313 (Bus. Lang. I)	3
Second Interm. FL	3
PHI 2113 (Business Ethics) . .	3
EC 4313 (Theory of Econ. Dev.)	3
Electives	6
Total Credit Hours	18

Second Semester

FLF/FLG/FLS (Bus. Lang. II)	3
Second Interm. FL	3
EC 5323 (Intern'l Economic Relations)	3
Electives	6
Total Credit Hours	15

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LANGUAGES FOR BUSINESS MEANS BUSINESS FOR LANGUAGES

by

Dr. Bettina F. Cothran
Director
Applied Language Programs
Georgia State University
University Plaza
Atlanta, Georgia 30303

LANGUAGES FOR BUSINESS MEANS BUSINESS FOR LANGUAGES

In the presence of a trade deficit of looming proportions, it would seems unnecessary to demonstrate the need of American businesses to sell abroad. Answering the need for education with an international perspective, courses and programs have been designed which provide students with an opportunity to learn about foreign cultures, languages and business practices. Such courses or programs are often interdisciplinary in nature and are especially promising when they combine the study of foreign languages with other studies such as business studies.

Georgia State University in Atlanta has traditionally been devoted to serving the needs of its urban community by stressing the practical side of studies along with the purely theoretical.

One example of this is the Applied Language Programs in the Department of Foreign Languages. In a shift away from the conventional view that foreign languages prepare you predominantly for that country's literature and the classroom consequently being dominated by reading exercises, we stress the communicative approach of the foreign language. This is also reflected in our instructional methods and materials. We view the language as a tool for special purposes rather than as a goal in itself. Our purpose is the foreign language for business. As a skill in addition to a thorough foundation in business studies, knowledge of a foreign language can provide the international business man with the competitive edge. To illustrate this with a real life example: an Atlanta business man who had competed in an international bidding had been notified that he was among the top contenders and that he should go to Germany to be present for the opening of the bids. Upon his arrival he found himself in a large room filled with people with the German company representatives sitting at the big table in front. The envelopes were openend and something was said. Although he thought he recognized his name being called out, he didn't understand anything. The next thing he knew was that the Japanese sitting next to him got up saying something in German. As you might guess, he then found out that he had indeed won the bidding but failing to make himself known to the board the contract was then awarded to the Japanese firm. The man returned to Atlanta and immediately enrolled in a German course!! He had had to find out first hand how important it is to speak the language of the buyer; and that increasingly may be the French, or the German, or the Spanish speaking person. One good first step in that direction is speaking a foreign language, maybe not perfectly, but well enough to feel comfortable in a business setting. By the way, learning technical language may be easier than one generally thinks. The vocabulary is both relatively limited in scope and repetitive. As a business oriented person, one has previous knowledge of the subject matter and is additionally motivated by interest.

There are two Applied Language Programs at Georgia State: on the undergraduate level we offer a major or minor in commercial French, German and Spanish and on the post graduate level a program in Translation and Interpretation. Both programs train bi-lingual professionals and students who will later serve the international business community. Since you are mainly interested in business studies I will come back to the business language program later and now would just like to make some brief remarks with respect to the program in translation and interpretation.

In 1979, this program was instituted for the bilingual person who has a well rounded education , an interest and knowledge of current events and a general facility of mind. In five quarters we provide the technical training for the translator by incorporating the latest state of the art in teaching methods, such as use of the computer as a word processor and familiarizing our students with computer assisted translation software. In the Interpretation program, special emphasis is given to Court Interpreting in Spanish. Through surveys we try to stay current with the market situation with respect to languages or subject matters most frequently required. Our staff includes experts from outside as well as visiting professors from other institutions. Designed to give our students or faculty members the option of experience abroad, we are currently instituting an exchange program with an European institution. After having been graduated from our program, the students have the opportunity to take the American Translators Association's accreditation examination on campus. So far, more than 95% have passed; a record we are very proud of.

Professional exams are a good guideline when it comes to determining course contents and skills. For our business language programs, we can use the certificate examinations issued by the Chambers of Commerce of Paris and Madrid and the Diploma of Business German, since Georgia State University serves as a testing center for these examinations, which are given once a year. Successful performance on these examinations is an indication that the student can operate in a business setting in a foreign environment. The student receives a certificate which is an excellent asset to the internationally oriented student, since the issuing organizations have high credibility in their respective countries.

In the commercial language program, the two upper level courses in French, German and Spanish are numbered 307 and 407 and we recommend at least one additional course such as "France today", dealing with current issues on the political, economic and cultural scene. After completing satisfactorily this level of study, the students both have a good command of the language and are able to communicate well. Our course contents reflect what the business community expects our students, the coming generation of international businessmen, to know. Aside from introducing the appropriate business vocabulary, our topics include the legal structure of business, the banking system, employer-employee relations, general business practices, cultural and social issues and business correspondence. We stress the contrastive approach to sensitize our students to the all important differences. With respect to teaching materials we stress the use of authentic material, such as unedited articles from newspapers and professional magazines, or publications from agencies which deal with such topics as locating your business in Bavaria, or forms you fill out at a bank or the post office.

Teaching for special purposes in the context of the business setting also means teaching special skills. We therefore include materials which develop listening skills - radio broadcasts would be an example - or practice discussions and interviews in class. Audio visual materials, such as news reels, have also been effective.

Academically speaking, then, we prepare our students with the appropriate vocabulary, the technical knowledge and the cultural information as well as the skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking which they need to be effective in the international business setting. What we haven't given them yet and what we really can't give them at Georgia State, is the practical experience. However, we have found a way to open the door to real life application of their skills through internships. Among the number of firms with international connections in Atlanta which have taken our students as interns and provide settings in which they can work and practice their language are Hartsfield Airport, international travel agencies, and the Goethe Institute. We also offer the opportunity for our students to work abroad in paid internships. In 1984 we were selected to join a consortium headed by Eastern Michigan University which has over twelve years experience with their program in "Foreign Languages and International Trade." This area studies program combines business and foreign languages and has built a successful network of internship positions in cooperation with universities in France, Germany, Japan and Spain. Unfortunately, our own Japanese program is not yet developed to the point where we can utilize the Japan option. We are able to send qualified students, who are sponsored by Eastern Michigan, to work in responsible positions in firms such as Ford, Phillips or Mercedes Benz in France, Germany and Spain. The internships last from three months to a year, and, if desired, business courses can be taken later at their respective universities.

Part of the qualifications for admission to the internship abroad is the successful passing of the commercial language courses, specific basic business courses plus a minor concentration in one area such as accounting or marketing. The experience abroad is one of the most valuable preparations for students for their later careers. There, they are exposed not only to the foreign language in their work experience, but also to technical terminology of their selected field. After completing this regimen, they are prepared to either go out into the job market or seek entrance into an international MBA program, many of which now incorporate foreign language skills.

This course of study has been designed especially for foreign language students who are interested in business and want to combine business courses with their foreign language skills. It is of course equally advantageous for the business student who wants to enter the international field.

The addition of an advisory board has been the latest step in the development of the Applied Language Programs. At present, nine leaders in the community involved in international businesses or agencies have been selected to represent a cross-section of languages as well as industries, including manufacturing, service industries and transportation. The purpose of the board is to advise us on the relevance of course contents and skills taught, to provide internships for our students as well as for those who come from abroad under the auspices of our program, and to give us increased visibility in the community. In return we display the names of the companies on our brochures, provide them ocassionally with translators or guides to accompany foreign visitors, and of course give the companies the opportunity to contribute to the further development of international education and business.

By preparing our students with the technical knowledge, the language skills and the international perspective and experience which will make them the successful business persons of tomorrow I feel interdisciplinary programs such as ours at Georgia State University offer the key to a rewarding future.

BILINGUAL BUSINESS STUDIES AT THE TWO-YEAR LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGE

by

Catherine Dendle

Bilingual Business Studies at the two-year Liberal Arts College

Gone is the time when the study of a foreign language was a luxury for the few. The acquisition of a language skill is now thought of an absolute necessity from the commercial point of view. New demands from corporations in search of graduates with an international studies background to fill positions at every step of the ladder require a new approach to the study of a foreign language which must emphasize the study of the specialty language as it is used in business, fashion, banking etc. Can the study of the specialty language be integrated into the two-year liberal arts college? and how? How early in the study of the foreign language can the study of the specialty language be introduced? What level of accomplishment can be expected in the study of the specialty language in a two-year program? These are some of the question we propose to consider here as we look at Midway College's Bilingual Business Studies program (BBS).

The circumstances which prompted the idea of a bilingual business studies program are related to the location of Midway. Just a few miles from Lexington, Midway city and the college which bears its name are in the heart of the thoroughbred country. Midway College has an important Equine Office and Management Administration program whose graduates find employment at the large horse farms of Kentucky's Bluegrass region. In the 70s, when an increased amount of business between American and French horse farm owners, breeders and trainers took place, the need was felt for horse farm personnel knowledgeable in French. A number of other businesses in the area started to express a growing need for personnel with the knowledge of a foreign language, especially French and Spanish. The Bilingual Business Studies program was eventually designed to help Midway College's graduates be better prepared to face these needs.

The new program was to provide students with a general education, a business education, and the working knowledge of a foreign language. To courses taken from the general studies and business programs only three new courses: ~~such as~~ business Spanish, business French and Introduction to International Business, needed to be added to constitute the new program.

The Bilingual Business Studies curriculum includes 33 credit hours in general studies, 24 in business courses and 12 in French or Spanish. A course in geography is part of required general studies courses. In intermediate language courses emphasis is put on cultural readings and grammar review; special assignments in literary readings are offered to transfer students while business related readings are offered to BBS majors. In this way business terminology is progressively introduced as a preparation for the business French and Spanish courses. These courses are taught once a year in the Spring; they may be taken concurrently with French or Spanish fourth semester language course. The Introduction to International Business course is offered every other year.

In order to help students be better prepared for the intermediate language courses and the French and Spanish business courses, a new optional course was offered: the six-week summer course abroad called International Living/Learning Experience (Ille). This course can be taken at the end of the first year language courses. Students stay with a family abroad in the "au pair" situation; they may take this course for credit, as one of their general studies courses, by studying the civilization of the country during their stay. The advantages of this end of first year course abroad are considerable: students come back from it eager to enter the intermediate level courses; their level in comprehension and speaking ability allow for a remarkable progress during the intermediate courses; the business French or Spanish course can effectively be taught all in French or Spanish in the second semester of the second year.

To complete the program, students must take an internship locally, in a business situation where the foreign language is used, or abroad. The BBS Internship abroad has two objectives: improvement of fluency in the language and to provide students with direct exposure to business practices in the country where the language is spoken. Students live at the work site or with a family. The real challenge has been to locate an internship in relation to the student's field of interest. The internship abroad may be taken concurrently with the summer ILLE course allowing students to earn six credits and be entitled to receive financial aid while studying abroad.

Finally, students interested in the international aspect of the thoroughbred industry may take a one credit hour course in Equine French at the end of the first year French language course. This is a beginning level course on French equine terminology. It is offered every other year. It is designed to prepare students for their internship at a French horse farm.

Other mini-courses are being offered on an experimental basis: one in fashion can be taken as part of the business French course by students interested in the international aspect of fashion merchandising; another one in preschool French is ready to be offered to the Early Childhood Education major wishing to pursue the study of French and to use it at the preschool level. French has been taught for the past three years at Midway College's Preschool.

Such mini-courses help make internships abroad more rewarding and valuable. Over the past two summers we have had students taking internships in a bloodstock agency in Paris, France, in a shipping agency in Mexico City, and on a horse farm in Normandy France. This summer, students will take internships at French horse farms in Normandy, and at a French fashion firm which has a catalogue sales operation in the US.

We are in the third year of the Bilingual Business Studies program. We have been able to observe that such a program encourages students to undertake or pursue the study of a foreign language. Students will more readily study a foreign language knowing that they will have a chance to use it in their field of interest. They will go abroad more willingly knowing they will be able to work in their field of interest while learning the language.

Some of the challenges we have met concern (1) the double-track intermediate language courses; both the literature and the business tracks must be taught simultaneously since classes are too small to be divided; special assignments and audio-visual materials can be used to help resolve this problem; (2) securing business internships and families abroad, especially internships in the students'field of interest at the beginning level; (3) the French and Spanish instructors'training in the teaching of business French and Spanish; a scholarship offered by the French government to the American teachers of business French, as well as two scholarships from Midway College's Faculty Development Fund were used for seminars and internships in business pedagogy; and (4) the availability of appropriate business related audio-visual materials.

Some of the needs we anticipate for the development of the Bilingual Business Studies program at the two-year liberal arts college are related to (1) transfer programs requirements for entrance at the junior level in four-year institutions; (2) standard curriculum and testing for the two-year program; (3) work exchange programs at the intermediate language level such as through the University of Louisville program in Montpellier, France; (4) business students exchange programs with such foreign institutions as the Baccalaureat Technique Supérieur in France perhaps; and (5) the establishment of a placement bureau for the BBS graduates.

In conclusion, the Midway College's experience in bilingual business studies leaves us with these encouraging observations: a bilingual business studies program can be part of a two-year liberal arts curriculum with relatively few demands; business French and Spanish can be introduced at the intermediate level in an effective manner; summer courses and internships abroad make such a program feasible in two years by providing students with fluency in the language and the working knowledge of the target language thus preparing them to enter the international business field at the entry level; favorable response from students indicates that there is a real interest in bilingual business studies programs at the two-year liberal arts college.

TEACHING INTER-CULTURAL BUSINESS AND COMMUNICATIONS THROUGHT SUBJECT AREAS IN FASHION MARKETING AND ADVERTISING

by

Dr. Frederick A. Ricci
Golden Gate University

Teaching Inter-Cultural Business and Communications through Subject Areas in Fashion Marketing and Advertising

by

Frederick A. Ricci

How can instructors diverse their teaching methods for stimulating students to increase their knowledge of foreign cultures or of world commmuinications? A unique method is to incorporate what most people enjoy discussing and look forward to each season. No, it's not the weather, it's fashion: Fashion through Advertising Media. Most everyone throughout all nations has been exposed to advertising by some form of media: radio, television, newspapers, magazines or displays. The subject of fashion advertising automaticaly gains one's attention when we focus on international celebrities, their lifestyle and their dress. Today we are living in a visual world and there is no better way to bring excitement into the classroom then to discuss and show illustrations of fashion advertising. These factors can be used as a tool to convey business policies throughout the world in international marketing and the economic factors of world trade.

Instructors of languages and business have a common goal -- teaching of inter-cultural communications. The language of visual communications provides an ability to convey to those of a "foreign tongue" how poeople communicate within our world.

I'm sure you are aware of the methods used by travellers who overcommed the language and cultural barriers. One method proven effective is by sharing common interests through awareness of what's going on in the world today. As we travel to foreign lands, we are asked, "How are people different from us in your country, or what do people think about us." Our responses usually concern the latest fads, trends, popular foods, entertainment and styles of dress. These discussions often lead to a friendly conversation. Many foreign nationalists when conducting business like to know the person i.e., their likes, dislikes, family life-style, entertainment, their attitude on their country on their people, prior to their commitment with the firm. The responses can bring discussions from the students on some similarities and differences. The sign of a welcome in Japan is a bow, in Latin America a hug, perhaps a kiss in France, Spain, or Saudi Arabia, and in America a strong firm handshake. What is often observed after the introduction is the person's physical appearance -- more specifically one's style of dress. Later discussion on customs, latest trends and mode of fashions are topics of interest.

Fashion has been an exciting topic since the Egyptians sought agents to search the world for silks, dyes, and skins to enhance their appearance. Trade continued throughout the Mediterranean region from 1200 to 500 BC by the Phoenicians. Later in Rome great retail centers were grouped in a Forum and devoted to the "Divinity of Imperial Supplies" where fashion and marketing were the topics of conversation providing common interest leading toward business communications.

Fashion took hold again in Europe in the form of our present retailing form in England as was known as the Royal Exchange. In 1823, John Wanamaker opened the first department store in the United State.

Today we are fortunate to be aware of what exists by advertising media: television, magazines, and displays in stores and windows. What can one learn about the dress and styles of varouis countrie by observing the trend-setter styles originating in New York, London, Paris, and Milan. In addition magazines and newspapers are filled with latest fashions and displays of today's styles. Fashions of various colors and designs and could increase cultural awareness by discussing colors and their symbolic meanings in parts of the world. One can learn the effect of cultural aestetics, i.e., the arts, folklore, artistic expression, standards of beauty in each culture. Symbols having distinct meanings, for insensitivity to aesthetic values can offend and often create negative impressions. For example, the color red in China signifies happiness. Thereforem, clothes with a red accent convey a joyous occasion. Identifying the economic mood of the country often dictates the mode of dress of the country. Iran, for example has returned to the earlier dress styles. We can learn about the changing role of women in Japan by her styles and dress at work . Or we might discuss the change in their purchases that expressses individually and resulting in the rise of the Japanese "yuppie." Japanese marketing strategies at this time rely on designs to lure shoppers as evidenced in the increasing products at designer's boutiques. The young Japanese consumer is changing from being primarily interested in having things to designate individuality.

It's not only Japan's fashions that are changing; a fashion magazine has even hit Russia with a russian-language edition of the West German fashion magazine BURDA MODEN and a first nationally televised fashion show.

Instructors of business and foreign languages meet when teaching business concepts and techinques through the common language of the fashion industry. Principles of business marketing can be simplified to both the foregin language teacher and the international business teacher involved in teaching where English and the American culture are foreign by utilizing the fashion industry as a focal point.

Discussion of product acceptance, pricing, distrubiton methods and promotional activies are clearly seen within the fashion industry in all countries. One can discuss the development of a product based on the wants and needs and buying habits of a particular culture or society. How changes take place with the same product to adapt to tastes of the target market country can be illustratuted. Trends in fashions advertising and display are geared to the needs of the group and convey the benefits of the product in the most "culturally-targated" language. Or perhaps a discussion could be held on how you can convey the features of this product in pictures that anyone can understand. Using picutures provide global usage, and a logo or designer's name create a better awareness of commonalities of people's tastes.

How would people of developed and developing countries use this product. A product could be marketed to extend and improve their living conditions or just pleasing to the eye, scent, taste, or sound. How could we convey that this product is availiable? The use of media will provide introduction to the uses and types of products. However, media must be aware of the differences in country policies on media and the positive and negative affects portrayed by each culture in the displays or copy layout. Discussion of government intervention on advertising would enhance the need for the understanding of restrictions on advertising and marketing.

The acceptance of a particular fashion trend often serves as a breakthrough in accepting new customs or habits. If we can effectively change attitudes or interests through fashion advertising, we can significantly increase the commonalities of our wants, needs, and desires which would advance our inter-cultural communinications.

How do you begin your adventure internationalizing your business or language course of study through world fashion communication? Excitement is generated when materials are brought into the classroom such foreign newspapers, magazines or foreign video-taped commercials. Areas discuss could include audience target, marketing techniques identified, layout and color, wording (copy) of advertisement and placement time of the commercial.

By showing slides of fashion and displays from foreign countries or foreign newspapers and magazines one can see how each of the business principles, i.e., attention, interest and desire, can be incorporated into the cultural differences discussed. I´m sure that buiness and foreign language teachers would increase the students´ inter-cultural business and communications awareness by using visual aids.

I have successfully used visual materials obtained through foreign magazines, displays, and video tape commercials to students at St. Louis University in Madrid, Spain. I have notice the excitement in the class when pictures are shown on fashions and magazine advertising ...and of course....marketing´s most exciting product: Foreign TV Commercials.

Outcome? Using fashion and advertising subject areas in the classroom, students were able to ...

1. Identify cultural differences in reactions to visual communications.

2. Understand subcultures reference groups within and among countries.

3. Identify the concepts of AIDA, Attention, Interest, Desire, and Action and explain why advertising often focus on different motivations in other countries.

4. Distinguish between geographic and political aspects of a country which often set the direction for fashion and advertising within that country.

5. Realize that fashion and advertising can act as a change agent for a behavioral patterns within a country.

6. Discuss and explain the importance between interprepation and translation in advertising copy and layout.

7. Follow the fashion marketing channel and indicate the importance of international trade and export marketing.

How do you begin your adventure into teaching inter-cultural business and communications through subject areas in fashion and advertising? Obtain as many foreign journals, newspapers, magazines and commercials and plan your objectives similar to those mentioned utilizing your resources. I´m sure your teaching of inter-cultural business and communications through subject areas in fashion advertising would be most interesting and educational to you and to your students.

Submitted by:

Frederick A. Ricci
May 19, 1987

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THE ACID TEST OF LANGUAGE TRAINING IN BUSINESS EDUCATION

by

Gudrun Bjoernoe

Niels Brock School of International Business

Copenhagen

Denmark

Paper presented at Sixth Annual Conference on Languages and
Communication for World Business and Professions

May 1987

Degree objectives:

Niels Brock School of International Business is a business school integrating theory and practice specializing in International Business. The School was established in 1977 and is unique in its approach to education: the students spend half their time at the school, and half in a real job in a participating export company. The participating companies are actively involved in the program. Through company tours and presentation by company management the companies help tailoring the education to their needs. A very important aspect of this is the joint student-school-company selection of topics for reports and the thesis required for graduation.

The school seeks to

1. integrate theoretical and practical learning
2. speed up adaption of current theoretical concepts to practical settings.
3. provide companies with apt young employees with a base level of business skills (equivalent to the BBA).

Admission Requirements:

Students:

The education of the school is equivalent to the BBA. Applicants must have passed the Danish "Højere Handelseksamen" (HH) equivalent to two years of US college (associate degree of business administration). Typically the students are 20-22 years old when admitted, which means that they have spent 14 years at least in school. Most have no prior practical experience.

Apart from the business background a medium level is required in three languages:

English

German

French

All three languages are compulsory.

Company involved in the program:

A substantial part of the education is the work experience as an integral part of the program.

The students are employed in an international, export company (or import) with more than 10 employees. Also the company has to be approved by the school.

The students are employed, two at a time (job-sharing). The program is divided into blocks of appr. 5 weeks. When one student is in the company, the other is at the same time at school. At the end of each block one day is spent in the company together in order to pass on all necessary information needed for the other to continue a project. They share a full-time salary.

To give an idea of the interest for the program among applicants the latest figures show that for 80 positions there were more than 400 applicants. So it is obvious that the companies can pick the best ones for the jobs.

Academic program:

The education has a substantial academic part with a broad scope of subjects, divided into two main equally important areas

business

languages

The subjects in business are:

International Marketing
International Taxation
Management Control
Proficiency in Speech and Meetings
Sales Training
Topical Issues in Management

Two papers are written (one per year):

Paper 1: Situation analysis

Description of market structure and behavior for a certain product in a specific market.

Paper 2: Situation analysis and selecting marketing opportunities

Same as paper 1, plus
forecast, analysis of opportunities/threats, and strength/ weaknesses of the business unit and discussion of objectives.

Final Thesis:

Contents:

Executive Summary
Current Marketing
Opportunity and Issue Analysis
Objectives
Marketing Strategy
Action Programs
Budgets and Controls

All the above papers plus the final thesis are closely related to the companies involved as the papers take up topics on specific markets and specific products of the companies involved.

In this way the school of international business copes with its main objective, to integrate theory and practice.

The final thesis is discussed during a 2-3 hours' session between an executive from the student's company, a professor from the school and the student. This procedure has proved how useful the final thesis is for the company involved in the program.

Languages:

As already mentioned the three languages English, German and French are part of the program. In business it is important to be able to communicate without any difficulties in the three major languages in the USA, Europe and the main part of the world. The emphasis is laid upon oral proficiency, which is important in negotiations, telephone calls, telex, sales trips etc. Written language is trained, too (such as business letters, memoranda, telex and reports).

In the program the proficiency of speaking the foreign language and communicating the language in presentation, discussion, negotiation etc. is stressed. At the same time the student is introduced into civics and business life of the foreign contry by means of topical business texts (newspapers, magazines, textbooks etc.).

Not only language is taught, but most certainly to a great extent there is an interaction between business and languages. The interaction takes place when focusing on the various areas in the world.

1. and 2. semester: German/French speaking contries.

3. semester: English speaking contries.

4. semester: Japan.

covering: Languages, culture, politics, business, trade,
marketing etc.

where business and language faculty have to co-operate.

The interaction is carried out in the widest sense of the word. When the student in co-operation with his company has to work on a project, the school (theory), the company (practice) and the student have to work together on the project and in this way interact.

"The integration ladder"

In 8 steps the above interaction is carried through.

1. Company Procedure Methods
2. Paper 1
3. Study Tour 1
4. Language Course
5. Paper 2
6. Study Tour 2
7. Presentation Techniques
8. Final Thesis

The full integration described above is found with the

ACID TEST IN LANGUAGE TRAINING

during the two study tours where study tour 1 focuses on a European market and study tour 2 focuses on preferably an overseas market (the greater part the US) and the language courses. During these study tours and language courses the two students have to gather information on a specific market for their company, thus they are alone coping with the language in business negotations or interviews with foreign business managers etc. However, there will be a professor on the main destinations as a "coacher" for study tour 1. The destinations for study tour 1 are:

Paris

Munich

Frankfurt

Zürich

Vienna

The destinations for study tour 2 are:

USA

other destinations

Between the 2 and the 3 semester the students have to participate in either a German or a French language course with a duration of 6 weeks. Professional schools are used in:

France

Germany (FRG)

Austria

Also during the 6 weeks abroad a company project is carried out, this time stressing the trade language. They are all being accomodated in private homes.

The education has proved a success for the first 300 graduates. There are no unemployed graduates. Up till now they possess middle management jobs. Here are a few examples of their international careers:

In October 1986 there were 30 openings in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs for jobs as commercial assistants in the Foreign Service. Among 400 applicants 7 of these jobs were given to graduates from Niels Brock School of International Business. At the moment you will find among others 2 in New York , 1 in L.A., 1 in New Orleans, 1 in Chicago, 1 in Singapore, 1 in Egypt, 1 in Brussels, 1 in Duesseldorf etc.

Other examples are:

Marketing/Sales Managers

Managing Directors of own companies

Area Managers

Managing Directors of Subsidiaries in the US and France

Session # 16
Saturday May 9, 1987
11:00-12:30 p.m.

"A New Program: The Language and World Business Joint Degree"

A paper by

Gaston R. Des Harnais and Raymond E. Schaub
Eastern Michigan University

Gaston R. Des Harnais & Raymond E. Schaub
World College
307 Goodison Hall
Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, MI 48197

"A New Program: The Language and World Business Joint Degree"

We are pleased to be here to tell you about our new Joint Degree Program, the Bachelor of Business Administration and Bachelor of Arts in Language and World Business. We have been serving as Co-directors for the Language and World Business Project, funded by Eastern Michigan University, the Office of Research and Development, and the United States Department of Education. Under Title VI of the Higher Education Act (amended in 1980), the Undergraduate International Studies and Foreign Language Program, we have been awarded funding to design and implement a Joint Degree combining language, cultural and business studies.

The College of Arts and Science and the College of Business, in an unprecedented partnership, proposed the combination and modification of two current degrees to form the joint degree, the Bachelor of Business Administration and the Bachelor of Arts in Language and World Business. Numerous faculty in both colleges have contributed to the design and development of the program.

The Bachelor of Arts component is virtually the equivalent of the current Bachelor of Arts in Language and International Trade. This degree in applied German, French, Spanish and Japanese with specialized cultural studies coincides with the current Language and International Trade program, with one important exception. Instead of being linked with a minor in general business studies, that program would be joined with an internationalized Bachelor of Business Administration major in any of the standard tracks of that program.

Each degree component is fully accredited by the National Association of Schools and the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business. The sponsoring departments are five. In the College of Business, there are four departments: Accounting and Finance, Management, Marketing, Operations Research and Information Systems (O.R.I.S.). In the College of Arts and Science, the Foreign Language and Bilingual Studies Department supplies the Language and International Trade Program. The degree earned is jointly awarded by both Colleges: the B.B.A. in a standard functional major and the B.A. in applied language and cultural studies.

Rationale: Background and Purpose

In November of 1984, Joe Kent Kerby, Dean of the College of Business, and Donald Drummond, Dean of the College of Arts and Science, agreed to sponsor a grant application to the U.S. Department of Education Title VI program for the development of studies in Foreign Language and International Studies. The Deans acted on the advice of Robert S. Corredera, Executive Advisor for International Management Studies at Eastern Michigan University and Executive Vice President for overseas operations, Hoover Universal, Ann Arbor.

The application was submitted in November, 1984, by a task force of the Intercollegiate World Business Committee of which Mr. Corredera was the Chair. The application, endorsed by the Provost, his Vice-Presidents and the Office of Research Development, was successful with notice of the award being made known in January, 1985, to take effect in July.

The immediate rationale for designing the program was to review business offerings in anticipation of more stringent accreditation standards of the AACSB for the "study year" 1986-87. International offerings already in place would be supplemented with new courses to attract students to a program responsive to the massive changes occuring in business around the world. Domestic models and international practices have altered abroad radically since 1970. Business executives report that our universities as a rule turn out a "product" unaware of other cultures while our competing trade partners are often well versed and highly effective in our language, culture and markets. While it is not feasible to require foreign language studies of all our students, it was deemed wise to attract to our university an increasing number of language majors who would seek as well as an internationalized business degree.

The ultimate rationale of this program is that Eastern Michigan University should be first in the nation to offer an undergraduate world business program which is also a foreign business language major. Language students, closely tracked in a highly effective professional program combined with a cooperative internship, will help sensitize the entire College of Business and the University to international issues and values. The plan elicited enormous commitment from faculty and great interest from students. Since the language students will comprise a specialized nucleus in the college, the new offerings will:

a) serve as restricted electives to regular business majors

b) focus each business major area on international issues and practices

c) help keep the business curriculum internationalized.

Currently, this program is being reviewed at all relevant levels in Eastern Michigan University -- by numerous departmental curriculum committees, collegiate review councils, and program development administration in Academic Affairs. It is also meant to provide information for an advisory review external to the university. We seek timely approval so that we can implement the program in pilot form for Fall, 1987, and in operational format by Fall, 1988. While language programs in the secondary school system are aware of this planned joint-degree, active promotion is scheduled for this entire academic year.

The Proposed Joint-Degree Program

The distinctive features of the Joint-Degree Program, the B.B.A./B.A. in Language and World Business are these:

a) The program is expected to take ten semesters or approximately five years to complete. This is perhaps one semester longer than the current Language and International Trade students usually take.

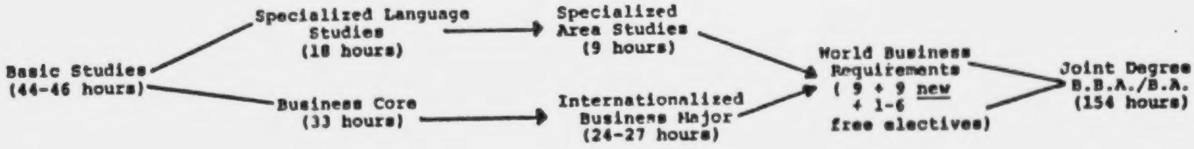
b) The total program amounts to an optimum 154 hours including an appropriate cooperative placement at home or abroad (3 hours) in the Spring/Summer sessions of the fourth year.

1) Basic Studies include nine hours of foreign language in a total of 44-46 hours.

2) Specialized concentrations in language studies, applied areas studies, international marketing and economics (36 hours), will be combined with the business core (33 hours), all courses of which will have some global elements; (69 total).

3) The standard business majors will be combined with a capstone World Business and Language seminar, (30 or 33 + 6 free hours).

The entire program can be diagrammed as follows:


Basic Studies (44-46 hours)
Specialized Language Studies (18 hours)
Business Core (33 hours)
Specialized Area Studies (9 hours)
Internationalized Business Major (24-27 hours)
World Business Requirements (9 + 9 new + 1-6 free electives)
Joint Degree B.B.A./B.A. (154 hours)

The most distinctive features of this program are that it combines professional studies with applied humanities in order to develop a business graduate who functions as an administrative generalist with international awareness and language skills.

New Courses Added

Several new courses have been added, while all eleven business core courses have been revised to include international elements. The new courses, six hours of which are required, presumably in one's major, are:

MGT 362 - Managing World Business Communication

MKT 375 - International Transportation and Logistics

ORI 473 - Production/Operations Management-A World Business View

FIN 370 - Multinational Finance

ACCTG 4xx - International Accounting (in preparation)

Also, the Advanced Language and World Business Seminar, a language practicum with business content is being developed by a team of expert faculty and several consultants. The content consists of business and communication modules which may be used as a basis for the required language practicum.

Enrollment: Sources for the Language and World Business Program and Projections

This joint-degree project represents two years of collaboration between Language and International Trade and the College of Business. The Language and International Trade program, now fully funded in the university budget, will remain in effect but will also be a source of enrollment into the Language and World

Business studies. This growth is virtually assured by the increased commitment of secondary education faculty and students to language studies. The Modern Language Association (MLA) in 1984 reported increasing interest in foreign languages for business applications[1].

The Foreign Language and Bilingual Studies Department in Fall of 1984, distributed a survey to the 529 school districts in Michigan. 456 districts, just under 90 percent responded. The districts reported that:

- 120,404 students are enrolled in foreign language programs, grades 7-12.
- this represents 17.5 percent of the junior and high school population, more than double the national average foreign language enrollment of eight percent.
- many districts offer at least two languages. Thus, the 456 school districts can be "classified" according to language offered:

Language:	Number of Districts Offering:
French	280
German	130
Spanish	350
Latin/Other	20

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[1] The Ann Arbor News, December, 1984:

"New York. The Modern Language Association (MLA) reported that the (national) number of high school and college students learning foreign languages has risen for the first time in 15 years. The New York City-based outfit notes especially large gains in the study of Japanese and Russian. Also enjoying renewed popularity are Chinese, French, Italian, Spanish and German.

Monica Devens of the MLA points to several factors: Chinese and Japanese-Americans' desire to study their heritages; the appeal of Russian to students of America's position as a superpower; and increased interest in international business careers." (Italics ours.)

All districts, in keeping with the national trend, expect increasing enrollments.

This interest in foreign languages relating to businesses is exceeded only by enrollment increases in business programs themselves. The College of Business has experienced substantial growth in recent years due to interest in professional, accredited training and education.

Between December 1985, to March 19, 1986, visits by Eastern Michigan University faculty to 16 Michigan high schools attracted 2,440 students. The meetings were held to promote the Language and International Trade program and especially to announce the proposed joint-degree program.[2] Uniformly, the reaction of high school language faculty and administrators has been positive and enthusiastic.

Projected Enrollment

The recent growth pattern of the Language and International Trade program ensures that the joint-degree program would experience a similar response. A survey in 1983 of the first 100 graduates from the L.I.T. program indicates that the business component, in balance with language application and cooperative training, be increased.[3] We would expect to see the L.I.T. program match its projected growth with additional growth in the new Language and World Business (L.W.B.) joint-degree program.

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[2] Sources: Report by Dr. John R. Hubbard, March 19, 1986; records of Foreign Language and Bilingual Studies Department.

[3] Source: Departmental Report, Foreign Language and Bilingual Studies, December 27, 1983. These projections for employment of students trained in business and applied language were made by Robert Ristau in 1980, and have proved accurate. His study is available on file with the L.I.T. office.

Shown below are the actual growth figures of the Language and International Trade program.

Actual Growth of L.I.T. Program

1978/80	3	1983/84	175
1980/81	67	1984/85	183
1981/82*	105	1985/86	216
1982/83	143	1986/87**	201

*Estimated
**Includes first year Japanese. An entire sequence of Japanese courses is proposed for approval this month (April 1987).

A surge factor is in evidence between Fall 1981 and Fall 1983, with 100 percent growth. The growth in 1986/87 is due to the addition of the first Japanese course.

Since L.I.T. students can qualify for the joint-degree by increasing their business minor to the complete major, the initial growth of the Language and World Business program will consist largely of transfers. For matters of accreditation this decrease in the number of minors with growth in majors is desirable. It also is positive for the placement and careers of the graduates. The figures below show L.I.T. majors declared at the outset, followed by growth of L.W.B. students.

Projected for Both Programs
L.I.T. (+ L.W.B.)

1987/88	1988/89	1989/90	1990/91
210 (+25)	200 (+75)	150 (+150)	150 (+200)

Although these projections include some likelihood of students shifting from a minor to a major as they progress, the growth factor of greater importance is the increased share of language students Eastern Michigan University will attract by offering a joint-degree program unique to Michigan and the nation.

Accreditation and the New Joint-Degree

Both the degrees in this joint program and their respective faculty will remain distinct. The accreditation requirements for each college have been met. The AACSB is requiring that the College of Business reflect international and global trends in its courses and programs in any case. This proposed joint-degree program represents a clear commitment of the College of Business to an integrated and well defined internationalization of its curriculum. The language degree requirements also mean that a cadre of our students will be culturally prepared to work as internatioinal specialists for corporations seeking B.B.A. graduates, trained in standard functions.

When AACSB Conferences on Internationalization of Curriculum, were held in San Francisco, March 1985, and in Miami, February 1986, our program was singled out as a model in its direction and design. It is anticipated that the accreditation review scheduled for Fall 1987 will be strengthened by the world business elements evident in both courses and publications, occasioned and directed by grant-related activity and projects.

Advisory Endorsement

The Department of Education Title VI grant provided for overseas consultants to visit our university and review our program:

Dr. Marco Fernandez, Director
International Programs
Escuela Superior de Gestion Commercial
y Marketing (ESIC)
Madrid

Dr. Jean-Paul Larcon, Director
Haute Etudes Commerciales (HEC)
Paris

Dr. Rolf Pfeiffer, Director
Export Academy-Reutlingen
Federal Republic of West Germany and Faculty member
from the Fachhochschule of Reutlingen

The College of Business also has retained over the past three years a resident consultant and Executive Advisor of International Management Studies; first, Robert S. Corredera, mentioned above, and now Bruce R. Paxton, both highly experienced world business executives who have served as Chairman of our World Business Committee.

The consultants assessed the program and reviwed the new courses. Their advice has been integrated into the program design. Several of the consultants were extremely pleased to have detailed courses and bibliographic material and considered them exemplary. The program has been formally endorsed by Messrs. Corredera and Paxton who acted as external consultants.

Compared to Existing Programs

The proposed program is similar only to our own L.I.T. program. There is no other undergraduate program in the United States which has its features. This is so mostly because, until recently, there were no other applied foreign language and cultural studies components comparable to those in our L.I.T. program. Also the new L.W.B. program is unique because it is the only B.B.A. degree in the U.S.A. which has such a language and cultural configuration.

The program is further ehanced by its participation in the International Cooperative Education Exchange Program which has been serving the Language and International Trade Program. In brief, our International Internship Exchange Program has become a vital component of our business language curricula. In the most direct way possible, it takes our students outside the walls of our university and totally immerses them in the real world of their chosen career field and gives them a learning experience sans pareil. Similarly it has led us, the faculty, to expand our own horizons by requiring us to develop and continually renew a network of contacts and working agreements with the international business community and with colleagues at other schools in the United States and abroad. The relatively high level of outside funding that has been provided to us for the internship exchange not only has meant continuation and growth of the program but also has signified to us important recognition of our efforts to innovate in a new and important academic area. We can only encourage our colleagues at other institutions to develop their own foreign internship programs because of the programs' great potential for enhancing virtually all aspects of business language curricula.[4]

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[4] See "International Internship Exchanges for Successful Business Language Programs" by Ray E. Schaub in Foreign Language and International Trade: A Global Perspective, Edited by Samia I. Spencer, University of Georgia Press, Athens, Georgia, 1987 pp. 229-234.

Projected Cost: Three to Five Years

Even with projection rates that are conservative, the costs of the program should remain minimal. When the the number of students reach a significant level and move through the program, the costs will mean a moderate but definite commitment by the university and the Colleges directly involved. The availability of the internationalized business components can be secured by scheduling them as electives and special topics courses. However, actual dollar commitments are essential to secure course scheduling when resources are tight. The Language and World Business joint-degree will not require the hiring of new faculty as far as expertise is concerned. However, the College of Business and the College of Arts and Science will, when hiring, no doubt include interest in international business studies, whether in language or the standard business areas.

During the two year planning phase of the grant, several departments provided pilot versions of the new business courses. This was done by scheduling them as restricted electives/special topics, with the cost of resources absorbed by the departments and the College.

Once enrollment has become substantial, we may need hard-dollars for offering all new international courses once every year (one per major); each of the four departments in the College of Business will need .125 FTEF (full time equivalent faculty) per course. This will probably equal .5 FTEF for the College. When the Department of Accounting and Finance adds a new international accounting course (to be defined) that will bring the commitment to .625 FTEF.

In the Foreign Language and Bilingual Studies Department the Advanced Language and World Business Seminar will be team-taught and will require .250 FTEF when it includes two languages and .375 FTEF with three languages. The pilot in Winter or Fall 1988, should require the .250 FTEF. The business modules developed with the U.S. Department of Education grant funding will be on file for use by the language teachers. The language teachers are translating this material and designing the language practices with help from business and other expert faculty from the Colleges of Business, Technology and Education. Ideally, these faculty may be able to donate the lecture time as part of a pilot. However, through a general globalization initiative it may be possible to attract corporate or supplementary funding to generate modest stipends to make this unique seminar possible. The U.S. Department of Education officials stated that they consider our proposal of a team-taught language and business seminar a unique and significant contribution to international studies and, if it became permanent in the team mode, an exceptional educational accomplishment.

Conclusion

The World Business Committee on behalf of the Deans and Colleges of Arts and Science and Business, is proud to have prepared this proposed joint-degree program as a timely and well defined offering of this university. The uniqueness of the program is yoked to a proven record of growth and achievement on the part of its parent programs, the Bachelor of Arts in Language and International Trade and the Bachelor of Business Administration. The endorsement of reviewing committees and councils is being sought in the best interest of the student citizens of Michigan and the Midwest who will surely contribute to world business achievements in this state, in our nation and in the world economic community.*

*Post-note: University approval was concluded on September 23, 1987, when the Board of Regents accepted the proposed courses and the new program configuration.

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Internationalizing the business program in small colleges under conditions of constrained resources.

BY

Kenneth O. Morse

Coordinator, International Business Programs
High Point College
High Point, North Carolina

Paper prepared for Sixth Annual Conference

Languages and Communication for World Business
and the Professions

Ann Arbor, Michigan

May 11, 1987

ABSTRACT

Internationalizing the business program in small colleges under conditions of constrained resources.

(approximately 20 minutes)

This presentation is geared to those in either the business or language departments, or in any of the business professions, who are interested in upgrading the international scope and content of business school programs. While the paper is not directed to any specific language or profession, it is intended to stimulate discussion of successes and failures in improving the international content of the business school program.

After describing the environment of a small private college with severely constrained resources, this presentation will briefly discuss successes and failures in internationalizing the business school program. Successes include addition of new people, addition of new courses and strengthening existing courses, and increased on and off-campus publicity for the program. Failures include overtaxing available resources, small class sizes and apathetic responses by both the academic and business communities.

A novel approach to improving several programs simultaneously, especially in light of significant resource constraints, is the sharing of common resources. Some of the existing resources will be listed, followed by a discussion of the creation and use of a consortium of local institutions to more efficiently allocate available resources. Included are some possible sources for funding, as well as ideas for motivating resource participation.

A summary of current progress and future efforts rounds out the presentation.

Internationalizing the business program in small colleges under conditions of constrained resources.

BY

Kenneth O. Morse
Coordinator, International Business Programs
High Point College, High Point, North Carolina

I. INTRODUCTION

After describing the environment of a small private college with severely constrained resources, this presentation will briefly discuss successes and failures in internationalizing the business school program. Successes include addition of new people, addition of new courses and strengthening existing courses, and increased on and off-campus publicity for the program. Failures include overtaxing available resources, small class sizes and apathetic responses by both the academic and business communities.

A. Accreditation Recommendations

The accreditation body for business programs, the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB), maintains formal guidelines for business schools seeking their recognition. These guidelines, first issued in 1919, have evolved into a formal code of standards and practices which business schools are required to follow in constructing and maintaining their programs. The evolutionary nature of acreditation standards has had a significant impact on the international character of business programs in the past decade.

In 1974, the AACSB began requiring its members to include the worldwide nature of business in their programs. This requirement was formalized in the Accreditation Council Policies, Procedures and Standards for 1976-1977. However, a clarification issued in 1978 specifically identifies the intent of this requirement as follows:

> "Schools of Business and Management should demonstrate a basic awareness that business in general extends beyond our country's boundaries. The curriculum should demonstrate a sensitivity to international dimensions and that exposure to international business will be available in the curriculum."[1]

Since this statement was issued, the formal accreditation standards of the AACSB have included the following statement:

> "The purpose of the curriculum shall be to provide for a broad education preparing the student for imaginative and responsible citizenship and leadership roles in business and society - *domestic and worldwide*. ... There is no intention that any single approach is required to satisfy the *worldwide dimension* of the Curriculum Standard, but every student should be exposed to the international dimension through one or more elements of the curriculum. [emphasis added]"[2]

Thus, for accreditation reasons alone, business schools are attempting to internationalize their program content, and the qualifications and experience of their faculties.

Within the State of North Carolina, some additional emphasis on internationalization of business school curricula was provided as a result of a report issued by the North Carolina State Department of Commerce. This report, commissioned by the state and delivered in May 1986, recommends a series of steps to be taken by business schools with the express purpose "to educate *all* business school graduates to have an international perspective, responding to the realities of the business world and the future needs of North Carolina's economic development. [emphasis included]"[3] This report also identifies several possible steps to increase the international content in programs offered by North Carolina business schools.

These two empahses have imposed added international requirements to the curricula of schools which have traditionally offered business programs to attract students. One segment of the academy affected by these additional requirements has been the small private college, which composes a significant minority of the post-secondary educational institutions within the State of North Carolina.

B. Current Environment

The current emphasis in most small private colleges is devoted to programs which will generate student interest, and attract new students to the college campus. This emphasis is especially important in an era of declining enrollments and rising college costs. Therefore, recruiting efforts are directed toward those academic areas which can be expected to generate student (and parent) interest, leading to profitable operations.

There are some natural results from such recruiting efforts. Students at the high school level are more likely to be exposed to local, state and national issues than they are to international issues. Further, students either have definitive, preconcieved notions of the direction of their academic studies upon arrival on a college campus, or arrive to attempt to "find" their niche in life. In either case, little student interest in or knowledge of international issues arrives with them.[4]

Thus, an undergraduate student body in this setting has little interest in international anything. These students are more interested in individual development, the development of friendships, and the discovery of their personal interests. In most cases, international understanding, international issues, and alternative cultures are of no apparent practical value in the above activities, and are therefore percieved by students as something for involvement by someone else.[5] The result: there appears to be no overt, and very little latent student interest or involvement - therefore "student apathy".

Small private colleges also have specific interests when hiring and continuing faculty. These interests also stem from the economic results to be derived by a certain "mix" of individuals; that "mix" is, in part, the result of student perceptions of the willingness of faculty to facilitate student goal achievement (as identified above). One immediate result is that little faculty interest in international issues, cultures and understanding is apparent on small college campuses. To the extent that such interest exists, it is to be found primarily in Foreign Language Departments,[6] where international cultural awareness is a daily part of faculty activity.

As has been pointed out by previous conferences of this sort,[7] the foreign language department is handicapped in its efforts to raise student and faculty awareness, and therefore participation, on campus. The language department is perceived to have a vested interest in building a specific clientele, on which it can continue to build its partisan foundation, and is therefore somehow discounted as a viable protagonist for international awareness in general.

Into all this has come a new awareness on the part of the business community of the importance of international education. In the past two decades the world has shrunk, as transportation, communication and information processing, and financial transactions have become more efficient and more rapid. The growth of the multinational corporation has had a profound effect on the way the business community functions, and on its response to the marketplace and the world around it.[8] Managerial progression in today's larger business firms' is just as likely to require a period of living abroad as a step toward promotion as the periodic transfer was such a requirement in the decade's of the 60's and 70's. As has often been the case, the selected employee has been ill-prepared to deal with the transnational transition that has faced him, and has been forced to learn by doing upon his arrival - a not too efficient solution to the rapid expansion of business operations.

Yet the business community, too, has been less than enthusiastic in its promotion of international education. Perhaps because the cost was expected to be too high; perhaps becuase the time commitment was too extensive; or perhaps because the right kinds of requirements could not be identified, the business community in general has been slow to promote international education, awareness and understanding. And without some sort of market for finished products upon graduation, the collegiate apparatus has been slow to add international emphasis to its curriculum, thus compounding an inefficient situation.

Within this restrictive environment, there has been little reason for the small private college to emphasize international awareness within its curriculum or its student body. The potential benefits of such action seemed to be far outweighed by the potential costs.[9]

C. Resource Constraints

It is painfully obvious to any informed observer that the cost, to students (or their parents), of a college education is rising. Regardless of the cause for these increases, funding for new programs and improvements in older programs must await the availability of the capital funds to cover their inclusion in the college budget. This restriction imposes a further environmental constraint upon the small private college. The entire gamut of operations for the education provided must be financed by the tuition and fees charged to students. Without access to state treasuries and the power to tax, supplemental funds must be raised through private donations, savings and endowments, and the private capital market.

The existence of this financial constraint is the primary cause for another significant constraint. It is difficult to find faculty and staff with the depth of experience necessary to provide a quality program without exacerbating the rising costs of manpower. Thus, should some interest in international awareness arise, it must be fed by current faculty and staff, until its growth can justify additional expenditure.[10] One way to do this is to make small changes in existing programs or to add small program enhancements that feed on this enthusiasm. But it is the limitation on directly related experience which tends to dampen enthusiasm, just as a program reaches a point of expansion.

D. Administration support constraints

Administrators, like bureaucrats, bear an unusually heavy burden. The functions performed are, for the most part, mundane. Yet they are as essential as the function performed by faculty, or executives. However, there are limitations on the ability of these supporting actors to facilitate program development and improvement.

Administrative resources have costs, as do any other resources. Rising costs in other sectors of academic operations are matched by rising costs in administrative supplies, salaries, and equipment. Further, changes in the operating environment may have a greater impact on the administrative staff than on the faculty. Computer operations are becoming the industry standard; yet there are training costs and learning curves which impact on this function, just as the demand for the affected administrative services rises.

Just as with the environmental and financial constraints mentioned earlier, administrative constraints limit the scope of options for the small college. Yet the demand for improvements in the product continue unabated.

E. The "Quick-fix" alternative

One of the easiest ways to "internationalize" any program, whether its the business program, or the history program or the art program, is to send students on foreign study trips. Here however, the school attempts to shift the burden of the expense of teaching onto the student, who is expected to volunteer for such study abroad, and to shoulder the additional expense of such activity. As a result, we see small programs which are significantly undersubscribed, or are cancelled, due to lack of participation on the part of students (read here: a corollary to student apathy in general).

To combat this problem, schools seek ways to decrease student cost of participation through creation of foreign branch operations (not unlike multinational corporations). Purchasing an apartment, building or schoolhouse and turning it into a satellite education facility with an on-site manager, may lead to better preparation, an improved reputation, and eventually greater student participation. Yet, in the face of resource constraints, this must be undertaken at the expense of alternative investments - a not too popular alternative!

II. INDIVIDUAL SCHOOL SUCCESSES

Despite these limitations, there are some steps that can be taken to attempt to generate and nurture any budding enthusiasm in international issues. One suggestion for internationalizing an on-campus program was recently published as a guideline for program improvements.[11] It is to some of these small steps that this paper now turns.

A. Increased Involvement

One of the first steps is to find someone to "get involved"; to get things going. There may currently exist a nucleus of such interest in the form of foreign language clubs, or perhaps an informal international students association. One of the key ingredients is student involvement. If faculty or staff emphasize certain key issues or activities, the students may tag along to see what happens. But, if a suggestion comes from a student, and the student can be encouraged to follow through, progress seems to come naturally. And, if one student can excite another student or two - watch out!

A second step is to identify available resources, especially those resources that can be used gratis.[12] This can be done through such formal techniques as surveys and telephone canvassing, or through such informal methods as "word-of-mouth" and, perhaps most effective, networking. While these resources may exist on campus, there is no reason to exclude the local community, or the nearby area as territory for possible resources.

A third step is to locate independent sources of funding to support international programs. Student and faculty grant programs exist, and scholarship funds are available, which can rapidly expand a small program. This step should be taken advisedly, however, as it adds significant workload and responsibility to anyone willing to attempt such a maneuver.

Yet such steps are necessary, if a school is to create a ready clientele for specific internationally related programs. This early, frustrating work will provide the foundation upon which to base the next major step - program expansion. Because resources flow to successful programs, a foot in the door may lead to much additional expansion. The next formal step is to win approval for the addition of specific, international issue related courses - and then to fill them!

B. Improved Programs

It is in this capacity that it is handy to have a viable business program. The business community desires additional international knowledge and awareness in its new employees (the college graduates of today's classes), and will help by hiring them. Further, internships for promising business students, especially those with good foreign language skills may appear from thin air.[13]

And then, the successful program feeds on itself! However, it never hurts to have publicity.

C. Increased Publicity

One of the neglected assets in program interest generation is publicity. While the word of mouth technique may work well enough to pass information from one involved individual to another, formal publicity can generate expanded interest from a number of unexpected sources. In addition, there are a number of information transmission means which can be used to generate interest.

People respond to what they see. The use of attractive posters generates curiosity. Direct campus mailings, while of limited benefit, raise awareness. Specific invitations to program related functions adds a touch of individualism and caring that can secure increased interest.

Word of mouth advertisement is the oldest, and most successful form of communication. It is all the more effective because it involves personal contact. All one need to is recall the course one took because "someone said" it would be an easy "A". But in addition to word of mouth advertisement, public announcements at large student gatherings may generate some discussion, leading to curiousity arrousal. In some cases, use of on campus radio announcements, or TV "spots" has also been successful in generating interest.

A neglected publicity resource for most small colleges is the local news media. Print and broadcast media are always looking for "fillers". What better way to get some additional interest than to provide a continuous flow of useful tidbits to the local press. Another practical publicity source is the local "speakers bureau". Providing faculty with interesting experiences to schools, civic organizations,and business gatherings can help to stimulate community interest "off campus", which can then be drawn on as a asset when on campus resources are insufficient. Cultivating the ear of local reporters, and providing free consulting services make the public aware of an unknown and untapped resource.

As with other improvements, these changes do not come without costs. Resources used to increase publicity and generate curiousity are resources unavailable for program development and expansion. The necessary trade-off must be made somewhere.

So what about all those constraints? What about the limited funding, and the relative disinterest of students and faculty? How does a school with serious constraints go about implementing those steps to bigger and better programs with increased international emphasis? One very useful approach is to seek help, for there is certainly strength in numbers.

III. THE CONSORTIUM APPROACH

Within a radius of 30 miles from the geographic center of the North Carolina triad,[14] there are six small colleges, each with an express interest in internationalizing their respective academic programs. However, for many of the reasons listed above, efforts to improve the international content of programs suffers from resource shortages. This shortage is even more unfortunate in light of the abundance of available resources within the same geographic area.

A. Untapped Resources

North Carolina is one of the leading exporting states in the U.S.[15] Products range from agricultural commodities to assembly line textile and leather products to medical technology and consulting services. This wealth of export production has required the development of a significant supporting service sector within the area, a supporting cast with a storehouse of information which would be usefull to any academic program. These service organizations include major exporting businesses, government agencies and service organizations.

1. The international business community

Major exporting industries maintain departments which work specifically within the international community.[16] Such firms are in daily communication with international markets, and are fully cognizant of the current issues which businesses face in dealing with foreign competition.

Members of these organizations present a rich resource for the aspiring international business program. Speakers can be invited to supplement classroom lectures in specific business-related phenomena. The public financial statements of these firms can be obtained in quantity for practical analysis by international business students. Banking officials familiar with international financing are a very promising resource for major portions of an international business program.

In the same vein, international businesses are the primary consumers of the product of international business programs. Because they are not only in close contact with the international business arena, but also vitally interested in the results of these programs, the international business community provides a ready training ground for students through the use of internships and part-time employment. All that must be done is to make contact with the right people, and convince them of the value of their efforts.

2. North Carolina World Trade Association

Because there are such a large number of businesses within the Triad area with an interest in international trade, international markets, and international business in general, an informal informational exchange program has seemed to be a useful idea. The result was the creation of the North Carolina World Trade Association, with seven chapters throughout the state. These chapters are organized to provide a forum for business people to learn of available programs of assistance, to share experiences and ideas, and to promote their individual line of business. Chapters conduct meetings on a periodic basis to distribute available information through formal presentations, and culminate their activities in a statewide annual meeting. Membership is open to the concerned public from various sectors of activity.

These various chapter activities are facilitated by including representatives of various governmental organizations among the membership, as well as concerned representatives of service agencies, and international business scholars. The result is cross-fertilization of ideas between the various sectors of the business community, the academic community and the governmental community.

3. U. S. Department of Commerce

A major governmental organization interested in promoting international business activities is the U.S. Department of Commerce.

This agency is instrumental in helping business to find foreign opportunities, then to help finance and promote these opportunities one found. Since the employees of this organization are in direct contact with the Federal government, they are perhaps more aware of current policy directions and pending actions than is the average businessperson.

An international business program must be cognizant of the legal and regulatory environment in which its graduates must function. These are major components of the coursework of aspiring international business majors. What better source of current information for course development than those actively involved in such activity? Again, a major resource is readily available, if the right circumstances occur.

4. North Carolina Department of Commerce

Because exporting is a major portion of the economy of the state of North Carolina, a state Department of Commerce has also been established. This agency is very similar in composition to that of the U. S. Department of Commerce, with many of the same activities and resources, but directed from the state, rather than the Federal, government. As with the U. S. Department of Commerce, this agency is a rich source of information about the policy climate for international business activity within the state.

B. Disadvantages of Independence

Therefore, it seems it should be relatively easy to obtain all the resources necessary to establish a dynamic international business program in this environment. All a school need do is send a representative to World Trade Association meetings, visit multinational corporations and banks, peruse the files of Federal and State governmental agencies, and schedule a wealth of guest speakers on topics of pertinence to international students, thus installing the most dynamic of international business programs.

However, in small private colleges, this ignores only a few minor limitations. One is the need to teach multiple courses with multiple preparations with a very limited faculty. There are also administrative activities which are spread over an entire faculty, but a smaller faculty means more work for everyone.[17] Then, any sort of currency in the subject area requires a certain amount of professional reading, which places a further claim on already stretched faculty time.

1. Duplication of effort

Despite the wealth of assets available, each small college must search for the appropriate individuals, attend the appropriate meetings, and follow any resulting leads. This requires the duplication of effort, when representatives of two or more small colleges are located in roughly the same geographic area, and compete for the same contacts.

Another drawback to such an approach (several different representatives seeking after services or information from the same individual) is that academicians quickly "wear out their welcome". Not known for the generous size of honoraria, academic presentations from community members soon become a drudgery rather than a pleasant change of pace.

2. Limited education alternatives

Without access to some of the above mentioned resources, the quality of any small college international business program is certainly suspect. The limited access to current resources impacts directly on the quality of product produced by the institution, which reflects unfavorably in the graduate job market, and in the response for post graduate assistance from alumni.[18] It would seem that a more efficient solution should be found to add international flavor to small college programs, while at the same time taking advantages of the resources available in the local community.

C. The Piedmont Independent College Association (PICA)

Within the North Carolina Triad, we are conducting an experiment to see whether such a cooperative solution can be productive or not. A group of six relatively small private colleges[19] has been organized and incorporated to identify areas of mutual cooperation. One of these areas is that of developing international education.

The collective approach to problem solving is not new, nor is it a rapid method for making changes to existing conditions. Yet, in the case of PICA, previous success has created a foundation on which to build improvements in internationalization efforts. While the purpose of this paper is not to detail the history of any particular organization, there are some important characteristics which promise success for current efforts, based on exisiting organizational structure and practices. After a brief discussion of some of the more important organizational characteristics, I will detail the collective steps underway to improve the international flavor of business (and other) programs within this geographic area. In conclusion, perhaps a few of the ongoing efforts will provide suggestions to other schools finding themselves in similar circumstances.

1. Organizational Structure

The Board of Directors of the Piedmont Independent College Association[20] is composed of the Chief Executive Officers of the six cooperating colleges. This organization meets three times annually, with the Executive Director of the Association, to discuss pertinent issues and provide general direction for the organization.

The Academic Affairs Council is composed of the Chief Academic Officers of the participating institutions. These senior academicians meet approximately every other month to discuss common problems, propose possible new programs, and in genral provide a forum for communication among the schools in the regional area. It is through this forum that the efforts of an International Education Group were begun.

The International Education Committee consists of representatives of the participating colleges with a direct interest in internationalizing the educational program of their institution. Foriegn Language departments, Business departments, International Studies departments, English departments and History and Philosophy departments have been represented, indicating the broad cross-section of interest in international emphasis across the six campuses. This group meets periodically to discuss issues of mutual interest concerning increased internationalization of current and proposed programs. A summary of the items discussed and efforts to date follows.

2. Joint efforts and common programs

A number of efforts are underway which promise to improve the international scope of current programs. These programs fall essentially into two categories - specific program improvements and administrative efforts.

Three of the six schools currently offer student overseas study programs. These programs run the gamut from short inter-term study abroad trips, through full semesters at dedicated overseas facilities, to full year-abroad study programs. While these programs operate, they compete for the limited student clientele available on any one campus. Through the use of cross-campus registration,[21] more students should be available to provide a base for continuing these programs, while at the same time reducing the all-to-frequent problem of undersubscription in foriegn study programs.

One school currently has an international business major within its curriculum, while a second school has an international management program, both with significant foreign language components. A third school is considering the installation of an international business program, in part in response to requirements of businesses in its own community. A faculty exchange program, along with cross-registration of students seems to hold much promise for improved efficiency and quality programs for all schools involved.

Currently, each of the schools offer several foreign languages, and the capability to major or minor in one or more of these languages. Because no one school can offer advanced programs every semester, students run the risk, through off-sequencing[22], of missing an all-important course, thus jeopardizing graduation and employment opportunites. Through cross-registration, this problem has been ameliorated. Further, through a cooperative approach, it appears it may be possible to add new language instruction capabilities in currently offerred languages, and possibly additional languages, in part through the ability to share students and, perhaps, teaching resources.

Each of the member schools has its own faculty and staff resources. Some of these resources may be underutilized, or may be improperly utilized in their current assignment. One major effort currently underway to address this possible inefficiency is creation of a comprehensive directory of resources. Under the direction of the Executive Director, an attempt is being made to list not only programs, but available faculty resources and nearby community programs and resources. The resulting directory of resources will help those at one institution contact available resources at other institutions, thus strengthing their programs. Further, creation of such a directory seems a practical way to improve direct faculty to faculty communication, through the identification of common characteristics, backgrounds or needs.

One of the more promising aspects of cooperative efforts is the interaction with the local business and governmental sectors. A collegiate directory of resources may offer the business and government community access to services and expertise not otherwise readily available to them. By the same token, a common group of representatives may be able to deal more effectively with the business and government sector, thus creating better working relationships, and obtaining greater access to the resources of these sectors.

An early success in this area is worth noting. As a result of some improved publicity and joint attendance at the North Carolina

World Trade Association chapter meetings, some new enthusiasm for international issues has been generated. A small group of students has gotten together to try to create on-campus chapters of concerned students. One such chapter has held organizational meetings, and the students are working to develop interest on two other campuses. As noted earlier, this is all the more important because the effort is being made by students to improve the international study environment on their campuses.[23]

Finally, the accumulated size of the cooperative association raises the probability of access to financial resources. Grant distributing agencies are challenged to get the greatest effort from the available dollar resources. With a larger total clientele and a broader educational base with which to work, small colleges collectively can raise their competitive "clout" by joining forces. Discussions are currently underway to prepare a joint grant application, the proceeds of which will benefit all participating colleges, rather than the one successfull competitor.

D. The Advantages of joint efforts

The advantages of such cooperative efforts seem plentiful. A litany here would just serve to emphasize the obvious. However, it would seem that the major benefits of such efforts fall into three categories.

The old saw that "the whole is greater than the sum of its parts" seems to have much merit in this type of organization. Pooling of efforts should lead to greater efficiency in the use of already scarce resources. In terms of international emphasis, this may translate into the hiring of more qualified faculty, the expansion of foreign study programs, or the development of common courses.

Another major advantage to such a program is the ability to offer more programs to the collective student body. Rather than a single school providing all the major programs, some division of effort should provide specialization in programs where a single institution has a specific strength. This specialization can be facilitated by the cross-registration of students, thus expanding the overall base upon which institutions may draw their student clientele.

A corallary improvement may perhaps occur in recruiting efforts. With more to offer, more students (and perhaps better students) would be willing to spend the tuition dollars to pay for percieved benefits in a multi-institutional program. In the same vein, more and better students should lead to an improved educational atmosphere, where students and faculty can interact on a broader plane than exists on an individual small college campus. Additionally, such improvements may generate some enthusiasm among faculty and students. Such enthusiasm is an essential ingrediant to growth, but it is also a catalyst. If faculty and students get interested, improvements are bound to follow.

E. A Note of Caution?

Lest this paper present an overly optimistic view of the benefits of cooperative efforts, a dose of caution is also appropriate. Changes do not take place overnight, but only through the committment of time, effort and financial resources. Each of these hurdles presents its own impediments to solution.

Any programatic improvements take time to plan, to develop, and to implement. In small colleges operating with constrained resources, time is at a premium. As memtioned earlier, faculty are spread thin. Administrative personnel have their hands full. And all concerned have daily problems to face in maintaining quality in existing programs. As with any improvement, the benefits of tomorrow are built on the sacrifices of today. Yet, those sacrifices are not easily made.

There are few rewards for starting new programs. Most measures of success come several years down the road when the product is completed. Couple that with the inbred fear of change, and early efforts go unheralded. This, however, is not unlike the rewards for teaching itself, which do not normally come until an undergraduate student finds his role in society, and provides feedback that the results are directly attributable to earlier faculty efforts.

Finally, in a cost conscious society, the growth and success of programs is tied to the financial resources available to build the program. With cost constraints and income restrictions on smaller institutions, programs to internationalize the curriculum can only come at the expense of other types of programs. Increased institutional income appears to be an unlikely source of expansion, especially in light of recent changes in the legal environment in which these institutions must operate.[24]

It appears that success in expanding international programs in small colleges operating under conditions of constrained resources, whether those programs are business programs or other programs, will ultimately depend on the committment of the entire organization to the product produced. Small programs can be started, but it appears that faster and more lasting growth can only be assured through the joint efforts of a collective body. In the long run, however, the greatest benefit of a cooperative approach such as the one above will be seen in the product provided to society - our small college graduates.

[1] Accreditation Council of the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business, "Accreditation Council Forum" in The AACSB Bulletin, vol. 2, no. 2, Winter 1978, p. 31. The formal statement goes on to say, "There is no single way to meet this standard. Examples of expressions of the international dimension can be: 1. Inclusion of international dimensions within the subject matter areas (accounting, finance, marketing, econ omics, production, etc.), or 2. Offering selected internationally-oriented courses, or 3. Participation in international workshops, international faculty exchanges, faculty and student exchanges, and the like."

[2] The American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business, Accreditation Council Policies, Procedures and Standards, 1986-1987, St. Louis, MO: AACSB, 1986, p. 29.

[3] Professor Lee C. Nehrt, "Needs of the State of North Carolina for International Business Education and Joint Programs Between the NCWTA, the Business Schools and the North Carolina Department of Commerce", Raleigh, NC: State Department of Commerce, 1986, p. 1.

[4] This description obviously excludes those rare students who have traveled extensively, and arrive on the college campus with a cosmopolitan view of the international community.

[5] This, of course, ignores the minority foriegn student, who is immediately thrust into an international position due solely to locational circumstances.

[6] Undoubtedly, there are other faculty members and other departments with a direct interest in international awareness, such as Political Science, History, and many of the Humanities. However, none of these faculty departments is as directly tied to international awareness as is the foreign language department.

[7] For a general discussion of this and other problems related to language department involvement in business school curricula, see Samuel L. Hayden, "Foreign Languages, International Studies and Business (A Dubious Savior)" in The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, #449 (May 1980) pp. 151-164.

[8] No longer can firms produce solely for the domestic marketplace, as foreign competition soon drives prices down, reducing profits and eliminating small firms. Additionally, new calls for "social responsibility" on the part of business (from pollution control to employeee welfare) have forced firms to "rethink" the entire marketing process. See, for example, Richard J. Barnet and Ronald E. Mueller, Global Reach, New York, NY; Simon & Schuster, Inc., 1974 orNiel Hood and Stephen Young, The Economics of Multinational Enterprise, New York, NY: Longmans Group, Ltd., 1979.

[9] The benefits (an enlightened graduate, an international reputation, and some small accolades) seemed hardly worth the costs (possible lost revenues, dissention on the faculty, among staff, and within the board of directors, to name but a few).

[10] The anticipated return must be greater than the anticipated increase in cost for faculty, staff and facilities.

[11] Hughes-Wiener, Gail. "Practical Procedures for Internationalizing An Academic Unit" in International Studies Notes of the International Studies Association, June/July 1986, p. 22.

[12] In this case, the term resources refers primarily to "people with acceptable and significant experience, which can be used to lend credence to infantile international programs".

[13] In one case, a student applied to participate in an internship program, but was not selected. However, when the firm, which does 50% of its business directly with German exporters, learned that the student had a minor in German, they created a brand new internship program, just for that student. He now works part time as a translator of German business documents, while completing his final semester.

[14] The North Carolina Triad is a geographic area encompassing the cities of Greensboro, Winston-Salem, and High Point and their respective suburbs. The three cities are approximately equidistant from each other, forming a triangle about 17 miles per side. Within this area are three state-supported colleges, three community colleges, one major University, and six independent colleges with some form of religious affiliation.

[15] While North Carolina ranks 21st among the 50 states in terms of dollar value of foreign trade, this is due in large part to the relative size and development of the state. The state is among the top five in exports of Furniture, Apparel and Textiles, Metals and Mineral Processing and Industrial Machinery and Equipment, totalling in excess of $300 million in 1985 alone. Within the state, the Triad (Greensboro-Winston Salem-High Point Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area) ranks 25th nationally in terms of industrial employment and output, a major portion of which is exported. Within this area, foreign multinational firms from Spain, Germany, Japan and Italy have found a favorable production climate, and have located here. Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Greensboro Regional Office.

[16] Within the Triad, such major multinational corporations as The R. J. Reynolds - Nabisco Company and Burlington Industries are examples, while the First Wachovia Bank exemplifies the service industries in support of international operations.

[17] Some activities are necessary regardless of the size of the faculty: such as membership on various committees, academic advising of students, participation in student life and development activities, and the necessity to support athletic events. Each of these places a claim on faculty time.

[18] In this case, the loss can be significant, and financial. The primary source of endowment funds is alumni contributions. Those alum who feel they did not get what they anticipated from their college education are not likely to provide much in the way of endowment funds, thus not helping the problem of constrained resources.

[19] The six member colleges range in size from the largest (3100 students and 350 faculty) to the smallest (550 students and 125 faculty), with a cumulative total of 7,900 students and 1300 faculty.

[20] Most of the following organizational history is based on personal discussions with Dr. Daniel N. Moury, Executive Director of the Piedmont Independent College Association.

[21] This ability to cross register is the result of decisions made by another organizational committee, that made up of the several school registrars.

[22] "Off-sequencing" refers to those few students who decide late in their academic career, or take courses in the wrong sequence, resulting in the inability to complete a program due to unfulfilled prerequisites.

[23] This provides additional benefits, as one of the student organizers was able to make appropriate contacts, and is spending the summer working in Barcelona, Spain with a Spanish firm he contacted during the organization process. The news of this "opportunity" has generated additional student interest in the various non-classroom international activities.

[24] The recent 1986 Tax Reform Act is expected to reduce the available pool of donation funds from various sources due to its less attractive tax benefit provisions for those donations. This is but one example of the referenced changes in the legal environment.

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PARTNERS IN EXPORT PROMOTION: A UNIVERSITY-PRIVATE SECTOR LINKAGE PROGRAM TO PROMOTE INCREASED INTERNATIONAL TRADE IN SOUTHEASTERN MICHIGAN

by

David A. Victor, Ph.D.
John L. Waltman, Ph.D.

Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, Michigan 48197

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David A. Victor, Ph.D.
John L. Waltman, Ph.D.

Eastern Michigan University

BACKGROUND

In September 1986, the United States Department of Education awarded Eastern Michigan University a Title VIB one-year grant for the express purpose of linking the resources of academe with the private sector to increase the level of exports out of southeastern Michigan among small to mid-sized businesses. The grant, "Technical Assistance and International Business Programming for Small Businesses to Develop, Enhance and Promote Trade Activity," was renamed for day-to-day use to the more practical "Partners in Export Promotion" or PEP. At present PEP is nearing its finish. This paper details the grant for those who may wish to design similar programs for their own region.

The paper addresses five areas: (1) project origins; (2) the grant's purpose; (3) the need for the grant; (4) the project's actual functions and outcomes; and (5) suggestions and warnings for those wishing to implement similar projects.

Our interest in designing and applying for a grant to assist area businesses to increase exports had two clear roots. First is the strong emphasis Eastern Michigan University has placed on international issues over the last decade. One sign of this interest has been the establishment (through a series of federal grants) of the Language and International Trade (LIT) program in the Department of Foreign Languages and Bilingual Studies. The LIT program offers a formal sequence of instruction in several languages for business purpose. It also runs an International Cooperative Education Exchange to place students in practice-oriented internships around the world in such companies as Renault, Bosche, Siemens, ELF Petrochemical, the Unesa Corporation, to name a few. The LIT's exchange program consortium currently involves post secondary educational institutions across the United States, France, West Germany and Spain. And, for the last six years, the LIT program has sponsored at E.M.U. the conference Language and Communication for World Business and the Professions.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION GRANT

Building on the advances of the LIT program, in 1986 the College of Business was awarded a Title VIA grant from the United States Department of Education to create a joint B.B.A.-B.A. degree in Language and World Business. This joint degree combines the LIT degree program with a Bachelor of Business Administration degree. The latter degree is suffused with international elements and includes four new international business courses one in each major area of the College of Business. The College of Business also now co-sponsors the Language and Communication for World Business and the Professions Conference.

With this background of interest and effort in the international arena, a great deal of expertise in the field was amassed at Eastern Michigan University. However, despite Eastern's large numbers of returning students with direct corporate experience and despite the interaction with the private sector through such activities as the International Cooperative Exchange Program, relatively little of this expertise was being shared with those in the private sector in southeastern Michigan, the region Eastern Michigan University serves. Furthermore, with little direct interaction with actual businesses expertise, the faculty lacked a valuable tool to sharpen their skills and to enhance the currency of what they were teaching. To address these needs, the Title VIB grant was sought. It was an opportunity both to share our expertise with the private sector and to increase the currency and accuracy of our own "real world" information. This latter is available only through interaction with private sector businesses involved in the day-to-day activities of international trade.

As the name implies, Partners in Export Promotion is a partnership between the university and several regional umbrella organizations for area private sector business concerns. When the Title VIB grant was first submitted to the Department of Education, the university had entered into agreements with the Detroit/Wayne County Port Authority and with the Ypsilanti Area Chamber of Commerce, thus reaching approximately 1500 businesspeople. Since the grant went into effect, PEP has been able to bring on board several other organizations, most directly the Greater Detroit Chamber of Commerce and, in a more ancillary capacity, the Michigan Department of Commerce and contacts with the United States Department of Commerce - Detroit Office. PEP now reaches roughly 6500 businesspeople in a seven county area. In short, filling a real need in the business community, Partners in Export Promotion has been able to build on opportunies to grow far beyond the terms of the original Department of Education grant while still following the basic terms set down in that original grant.

PEP has been able to grow as a joint venture between the business community and the private sector because it addresses a very pertinent problem faced nationwide but especially in southeastern Michigan. That problem is the weakening position of the United States in an increasingly competitive world economy. The steadily mounting deficit which has consistently reached record highs for several years back to back has started to show its effects. Michigan, in particular, has been hurt by the inroads foreign companies have made on its traditional automotive-related industries. With one in every four cars manufactured in the United States sold abroad, the need to compete effectively in world markets is apparent. Still, aside from the efforts of the major automotive companies, relatively little export activity has taken place in the region among the small to mid-sized businesses which traditionally served them. Moreover, while several organizations had undertaken isolated export-related training and support activities for Michigan businesses, no organization had brought these various efforts together. In part, PEP has provided a mechanism through which a synergy of activities from these various organizations can grow.

PEP GRANT

The grant has used four means for achieving its purposes. The focus of each varies in order to address as many exporting needs as possible. The two most visible products have been the workshops and the newsletter. A series of three workshops was designed to help potential exporters identify markets, help them break into the markets and finally develop communication skills for facilitating trade.

The first workshop, "Breaking into Foreign Markets" focused on the most prevalent problem facing potential exporters - reaching international customers. Its main objectives were to assist exporters in:

identifying foreign markets for their specific product

using alternate methods of entry into foreign markets

addressing the challenges of foreign exchange risk management

understanding the rules governing letters of credit

appreciating the variations in world-wide production operations management

The second workshop, "Cutting Red Tape in International Trade," took potential exporters one step closer to success as it examined various barriers that arise in international trade. Its main objectives were to:

explore the need to cut international red tape

show techniques for strategic management

introduce licensing and joint ventures

explore the rules governing technology transfer

introduce transportation logistics

The third workshop, "Exporting Made Easy: Win Through Cross-Cultural Competence," mainly covered the cultural aspects of international trade, although it explored exchange as well. Its topics included:

winning in negotiations

profiting in currency conversions

monitoring the translation of written materials

conducting international marketing research

The presenters at these workshops included specialists from Eastern Michigan University as well as seasoned exporters from the business world. We were able to draw from a rich pool for these workshops.

Another of our endeavors was the newsletter. This was designed to provide country - or region-specific information for exporting including information on upcoming trade fairs. The tips ranged from information on culture, trade, and negotiation practices to discussion of possible export markets. The newsletter also promoted the other efforts of the grant.

The newsletter was mailed to members of the Wayne County Port Authority as well as to selected members of the Greater Detroit Chamber of Commerce who were identified as possible exporters. We used a mailing list with 1500 names for this.

The consultancies were another means of outreach. These were included to help companies with specific exporting problems. The program subsidized at least part of the consulting fee in order to help beginning exporters. Through this, we were able to link several companies with trade experts at E.M.U.

The case study portion of the grant was put in to encourage faculty members with practical export experience to write up cases detailing what occurred. A small stipend was available to those preparing cases. Those individuals were also encouraged to publish their results.

POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE LESSONS

If we have taught much, we have also learned much from this experience with the grant, some good, some otherwise. The most positive thing gained from the experience was the amount of resources that are available and ready to be tapped. Instead of having to scramble for topics for our workshop presentations, we were able to select from a rich supply. And, when circumstances dictated our turning to the business world, we found the same to be the case. We also found that service organizations like the Greater Detroit Chamber of Commerce and the Wayne County Port Authority were most helpful in providing us with a wide range of assistance including mailing lists, facilities, and helpful advice. And many of the experts who spoke to our workshops did so at no cost. One individual even flew in from Philadelphia (enroute to San Francisco) to speak.

The need for encouraging exports from this country was doubtlessly one of the reasons for the cooperation we received, so projects with similar practical goals would probably receive similar encouragement. The project benefitted also from a most cooperative administration including a resourceful grants office.

In our university, we did try to keep the program intercollegiate; that is we included experts from other colleges within EMU when we saw this as benefitting the program. While it may be tempting to include only College of Business professors, that can lead to parochialism if others from other colleges have expertise to share.

We also learned some negative things about such projects. Probably the main problem we encountered was the strong resistance in the private sector to exporting. The pressing need is clearly there, but many have the attitude that others should take the responsibility. The subject of exporting strikes a fear because it involves work. We found that many were expecting us to hand over specific export opportunities . . . that we would give them a fait accompli with all of the marketing, negotiation, transportation, currency conversion, and communication problems resolved. We never promised that, and we would never have been able to deliver. Exporting is work.

Another factor that entered in surprised us. While the potential exporters are generally receptive to academics as consultants, their reaction to them as seminar speakers was generally negative. "We want real - world presenters," they would say. This may relate to the point made earlier about their desire to be spoon fed. Academics won't do that, nor will the outside speakers, for that matter. We countered this by changing the program radically for the second and third seminars. The audiences were more receptive to mix of academics and business types we offered.

One unexpected turn of events was the competition we faced. A number of others are involved in export promotion projects which occasionally overlap. While we were comfortable with the competition, others weren't, and we became involved in minor wrangling with other bodies interested in similar projects. In the end, we adjusted our marketing so that areas did not overlap. During the project, fortunately, the U.S. Department of Commerce's representative in Michigan organized a clearinghouse, the purpose of which is to share information on the ongoing efforts of export promoters not only with the purpose of preventing duplication, but also of sharing expertise. This should resolve future problems.

It is also likely that projects like this may be in the wrong "home." That is, many universities are not set up for such programs. The bureaucracy can be too cumbersome to provide the flexibility called for. Simple tasks become complicated by the need for mounds of paperwork. We found several speakers to be reluctant to deal with us because of the slow return time for their honoraria. And, when inevitable deadlines arise (for example for advertising copy), the burearucratic machinery strained from the pressure for quick turnaround. The insertion of one ad for a seminar, for example, required the signatures of at least three other people who were not even remotely connected with the grant, an effort which took up the better part of one day. Thus, while the administration was most supportive, the infrastructure set up to serve often was not.

A final observation is the need for continuity in such a program. This has been a good start, but it needs to have some continuing, self-supporting endeavors to ensure that the plans are carried to fruition. Unfortunately, the budget cutting in the present national administration is discouraging such projects. The need for export seminars and informative newsletters continues beyond the time allotted to this project.

Also needed is a formal clearinghouse for export opportunities. Businesses in the interior of the United States (for example, in Michigan) are just not close to the sources of information on just what those in other countries need, even with instantaneous electronic communication. Strong communication networks need to be in place to ensure that as trade opportunities arise, they are not lost because the connections are not made. The clearinghouse started by the Department of Commerce is a start, but more funding and greater visibility are a must.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE SIXTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGES AND COMMUNICATION FOR WORLD BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

PART III.

INTERNATIONALIZED COURSES IN BUSINESS, FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND CULTURES

Internationalizing the Business Curriculum at Small Colleges:

The Introductory Seminar Approach

Gerald Michael Greenfield
Director, International Studies
University of Wisconsin-Parkside

Infusing business curricula with international perspectives has become an increasingly important objective for colleges and universities throughout the United States. As the global economy exercises formative power on national-level business enterprise, the rhythm of domestic economic growth reflects a wide range of international developments--both economic and political, and the United States cedes some of its status as a hegemonic power to nations in Western Europe and Asia, it becomes impossible to train a new generation of business leaders without recognizing and emphasizing the critical significance of global awareness.

Unfortunately, not all colleges and universities boast the resource base of faculty expertise needed to establish a truly internationalized business curriculum. Holders of advanced degrees in international business are not plentiful. Business faculty trained in traditional programs often lack the broader perspectives needed to establish international courses in their specialty--for example, offerings in international finance or marketing. Moreover, because of supply/demand imbalances, many smaller colleges and universities cannot fill all the basic business area positions, and must rely on temporary instructors. Finally, in many cases suspicion--if not outright antagonism--between departments of business and those in the liberal arts and sciences (often arising out of pronounced salary and student credit hour disparities) reduces the possibility of cooperative programming or team teaching, standard ways of sharing scarce expertise among programs.

This paper reports on an experimental course at the University of Wisconsin-Parkside offered through the program in International Studies as a means of responding to various of the problems mentioned above. This Seminar in International Business brought together faculty members from Business, Social Science and Humanities, as well as area executives involved in international business operations. It provides an example of resource maximization that enabled the first offering of an international business course at the university, while providing a forum for cooperation among faculty members who ordinarily had little interaction with each other. And, while not an unqualified success pedagogically, nor totally satisfying to students, the course did prove rewarding to all participants, and also had some unanticipated positive outcomes. The remainder of this paper will briefly discuss and evaluate the course emphasizing its development, format, and content. First, however, a short description of the UW-Parkside situation will provide some background for understanding the way in which this course reflected practical campus-level realities.

Founded in the late 1960s, the University of Wisconsin-Parkside enrolls approximately 5000 students and has some 170 full-time faculty members. The Business Division generates around 40 percent of the campus' student credit hours and accounts for 25 percent of all majors. Originally separated from the College of Arts and Sciences as the main component of a School of Modern Industry with its own Dean, in the mid-1970s such distinctions were abolished and Business became one of the eight broad divisions in a unified structure. This reorganization, inspired in part by financial considerations, was also designed to promote interaction between business faculty and those in the arts and sciences.

Despite what appears as a unitary structure, in many ways business remains isolated, and a measure of hostility characterizes the relations among the business division and other campus units. For example, in recent years business has been advocating the necessity of hiring a Dean and constituting the division more as a separate school, asserting that these steps are important to its credibility in the region's business community and would more accurately reflect its unique problems and potentials. Other campus units object, seeing business as already absorbing a disproportionate amount of campus resources, and receiving special dispensations for its students--as for example in the waiver of the college's foreign language requirement.

Hostility arises over issues of compensation in that business division salaries greatly exceed the campus average. Indeed, newly-hired Assistant Professors in business, still completing their doctorates, command higher salaries than many tenured full professors in the arts and sciences. Also reflecting a very different job market, business faculty enjoy far more mobility than their arts and science counterparts. Turnover in the Business Division is considerable, and many executives also discussed their education and the career path which led them to their present positions. They also advised students as to the general background and specific skills that would be important for people who wanted to work in international business.

The last aspect of the course was an independent research project in which students were to pick a topic related to their major area of interest or specialization, and discuss it in an international context, using multidisciplinary perspectives. This provided an opportunity for students to employ the course's general approach in the analysis of a topic in which they had some expertise, but in a more traditional context.

The International Business Seminar largely proved successful, whether measured by student evaluation or by the response of the participating faculty and business executives. However, as befitting an experiment, it also had its downside. Annoying, though by no means devastating, were the logistical difficulties presented in scheduling lectures. This was especially so for the business executives; their schedules remained subject to sudden change, so that far more than in most classes the course syllabus suffered alterations and mid-course corrections.

Perhaps the most problematical area was the difficulty of assuring continuity, given the large number of outside lectures and frequent changes in the established order of topics. The course's instructor attended all presentations, and tried as much while arts and science students only rarely take electives in business.

Given this situation, the International Studies Program was well positioned to help develop a course in international business. To begin with, the Program major largely is composed of existing courses from a wide variety of disciplines, and virtually no faculty members have direct appointments in International Studies. As such, the Program does not compete for credit hours or open faculty positions. Furthermore, the interdisciplinary International Studies Steering Committee from its inception had representation from the Business Division. Steering Committee members regularly work together on projects, and the "internationalization" of the business curriculum was seen as a natural area for collaborative efforts. Finally, the development of a minor in International Studies designed specifically for students majoring in business had received considerable discussion within the Steering Committee.

With this propitious background, the Director of International Studies and a Professor of Marketing collaborated on the design of a Seminar in International Business pilot-tested at the Senior level as a special topics course in Business Management during the Fall Semester, 1986. Several features of this course merit discussion.

The Seminar was coordinated and partially taught by the Director of International Studies, a specialist in Latin American history. This provided a degree of service to the business division in that since it often experienced difficulty covering all of its required courses, it was not in a position to release a faculty member to assume major responsibility for an experimental offering, especially one likely to have a relatively low enrollment. In essence, therefore, the Seminar came at no cost to the business division. At the same time, arts and science faculty members also saw a benefit to having the Director in a position of authority in that it proffered the inclusion of non-business perspectives and faculty in the course.

To maximize existing resources, the course design called for a large number of guest lectures from faculty members in business, communications, geography, economics, and political science. It also sought to bring in area business executives who had personal experience in international business. As a whole, then, the course would expose students to multidsciplinary perspectives and combine the insights of academicians and practitioners. Additionally, it was planned at an early stage to use several of the Going International videotapes to compelling demonstrate the complexities of doing business internationally and the need for some specialized training.

Broadly viewed, the Seminar had two components. The first communicated key social and behavioral science background seen as critical to the "tool kit" of practitioners in the international field. Thus, a political scientist discussed the structure and dynamics of the international political system; an economics professor focused on comparative economic systems; a geographer outlined major world regions and identified the criteria used to identify and describe them; a communications professor discussed the field of intercultural communication; and a historian presented an overview of the major processes and patterns in twentieth century world history.

The "business core" comprised the second component, with most of the major business areas receiving discussion. To orient non-business majors, this section began with an overview of business as an academic field, which identified and defined its subdivisions. Lectures by participating business faculty members addressed marketing, finance and accounting, personnel, and management. In each case, lectures discussed these fields in an international context stressing those aspects which demanded special attention or treatment when enterprise was not restricted to the domestic setting. Thus, such topics as management style, exchange rate fluctuations, labor problems, and the need for cultural awareness in marketing strategies were highlighted.

Lectures by international business executives also formed part of this component, though in practice, the discussions invoked the entire range of course material. Participants included a Director of International Personnel and a Vice President for Corporate Planning, Development and Acquisitions from S. C. Johnson, a Manager for International Business Development from Modine Manufacturing, and an International Economic Analyst from First Chicago Bank. In addition to focusing on their current area of specialization, business faculty positions remain unfilled despite almost continuous search and screen. Furthermore, while many campus programs have serious problems attracting students and are accordingly feeling pressured to raise enrollments, the Business Division enjoys a high ratio of full-time faculty to student credit hours (FTE/SCH), a critical administrative indicator for measuring the health of a program. The fact that the business program at Parkside requires its majors to pursue a 67 credit course of study further exacerbates the credit hour disparity. It is not untypical for faculty members in the arts and sciences to bemoan such enrollment patterns and express despair about the narrow career orientation of contemporary students, as well as about the "imperialistic" attitude of the business division. Implicit in this critique is a sense that business students are less intellectual and cultured than those electing to major in the arts and sciences, and that the business division is requiring an inordinate amount of course work so as to monopolize the credit hours generated by their large number of majors..

The reason for rehearsing these tensions is to explain and underscore the point that cooperation, and--in some cases, mutual respect--among arts and science faculty and those in business does not characterize the campus. As such, the international expertise of area and language specialists has typically found no expression in the business program. And, reflecting perhaps these existing tensions and antagonisms, business students typically elect a minimal number of courses outside of that area, as possible to highlight the relationships or common ground among them. Nonetheless, there was a certain disjointed flavor to the entire endeavor, and for neither the students nor the instructor did the course emerge satisfactorily as a cohesive whole. A related difficulty was the shot gun effect of dealing with so many topics. Students learned a little about a great number of things, but not a great deal about anything in particular. While this is perhaps a quality inherent to all survey courses, it seems less tolerable in a senior seminar.

Diversity of student backgrounds, while in some regards a strength, also exercised a negative impact. For the ten students who registered for the course majors were: business (5) international studies (3), economics (1), and Spanish (1). The non-business majors all had some difficulty dealing with the business core, while the business majors had a similar experience with the social science and humanities perspectives. At the same time, for their fields of specialization, both groups found the elementary concepts presented inadequate or boring. Also, in general, students responded most favorably to instructors from their own or allied subject areas; the converse also held.

These difficulties acknowledged, in an overall sense the Seminar largely proved enlightening and stimulating. Business majors came to see the relevance of broader understandings from the social and behavioral sciences, while non-business students gained a greater appreciation for the nature of business as a field of study. And all students were forced to come to terms with the realization that an insular and eurocentric orientation characterized most of their education. The importance of foreign language ability and an awareness of one's own culture and sensitivity to that of others also was underscored, especially by the business executives. Those practitioners also stressed the importance of a well-rounded educational background in that one's business counterparts in many other societies would expect to converse about a wide range of subjects before proceeding to business negotiations.

Moving from the classroom to institutional concerns, the Seminar had several positive impacts. Simply by reading the syllabus, the various participating faculty members gained some insight into the relationships among their fields. And, in most cases, faculty members were forced to cast their presentations in a manner more directly related to either business or international issues, thus further fostering an appreciation for the scholarly fields of colleagues from other departments.

The experience of actually listing an international business course, albeit experimental, helped spur business faculty members to consider designing some specifically international courses. Thus, not at all coincidentally, plans now are well under way for offerings in international marketing and finance. In addition, the possibility of developing an international business module for the freshman level introduction to business also has received discussion. Significantly, given the problems alluded to at the outset regarding mutual antagonisms among professors from business and arts and sciences, this international module will provide lecture opportunities for non-business faculty members. An additional serendipitous outcome was the very positive response of area business executives to both the invitation to participate and the actual experience of speaking to the class. Thus we have discovered a promising venue for tapping valuable expertise, promoting greater appreciation in the business community for the university's programs, and providing a valuable opportunity for students to interact with working professionals.

The International Business Seminar will require considerable revision to devise a more satisfactory and viable format. Positioning of the course also remains in doubt, for as a general introduction, it might prove more appropriate at the sophomore level. In this regard, any definitive judgement of the course's degree of success would be premature.

However, even at this early point, Parkside's experience with this approach suggests that the promotion of international perspectives for business students can be undertaken in the absence of business faculty specifically trained in international areas. It also demonstrates the potential merit of an incremental approach that takes small initial steps that do not require substantial funding or elaborate curriculum revisions, and then builds on their positive outflows. Finally, it supports an eclectic approach that seeks needed expertise throughout the university, rather than just within departments of business, as well as in the local business community.

TEACHING METHODOLOGIES AND COURSE CONTENTS IN INTERNATIONAL FINANCE

by

Dr. Ramesh C. Garg,
Professor of Finance and
Int'l Business
Department of Accounting and Finance,
Eastern Michigan University,
Ypsilanti, Michigan 48197
Tel: (313) 487-1350 or
(313) 487-3320

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TEACHING METHODOLOGIES AND COURSE CONTENTS IN INTERNATIONAL FINANCE

Rationale for the course:

For years the subject of international business finance was neglected because it seemed remote. It was regarded as a subject only for those who were directly affected, or for specialists who were required to master a profound, complex and esoteric subject. These assumptions have been demonstrated to be invalid. The subject is not remote. The world is continuing to shrink in size and business is becoming global. Virtually every manufacturing and service industry in the United States is involved in some form of international business today.

With the breakdown of the fixed exchange rate system, the world economy is now subjected to a new era of fluctuating exchange rates. Knowledge of the operation and mechanics of foreign exchange markets is critical for any business manager to be successful in this day and age. Furthermore, the volume of international transactions has grown enormously since the end of World War II. U. S. exports now account for about 10% of gross national product. For both Canada and United Kingdom, this figure exceeds 25%. Similarly, annual capital flows between the United States and other countries involve hundreds of billions of dollars. International investment and trade of this magnitude is not possible without the understanding of foreign exchange markets.

In recent years, there has been an increasing globalization of the financial markets. This has created a niche for investment banking firms to operate in a global market place. In addition, foreign investors remain major participants in the U.S. financial markets. The U.S. Treasury Department statistics suggest that foreigner have been a net purchasers of U.S. stocks and bonds, including the increased interest in corporate rather than government securities (see Table 1). As per Federal Reserve data, foreigners own 4.7% of the total market value of U.S. equities. This is the largest percentage ownership ever; in 1952, the first year for which the data are available, the percentage of 2.0%.

In todays economy, the multinational corporation (MNC) has become a norm rather than an exception. Many large U.S. corporations derive more than 20% for their revenue and income from abroad. Also, many U.S. corporation have substantial involvement in international financial markets, on the borrowing and/or investing sides; despite of their limited involvement in manufacturing and distribution.

Given the emergence of multinational corporations, the globalization of financial markets, and the complexities of foreign exchange markets; the need to internationalize the tools of financial analysis become apparent. A course in International Finance would provide a conceptual framework within which a finance manager can analyze key financial decisions affecting his or her firm.

This paper outlines teaching methodologies and contents for a course in the area of International Finance as it applies to the functioning of multinational corporations. The unprecedented growth of multinational business activity in the past several decades has made it necessary for finance managers to acquire skills to make decisions for global enterprises.

Goal of the course:

The primary focus of the course should be to examine the functioning of a multinational enterprise operating in an international environment. The course should be geared towards students and executives who are likely to confront the international dimensions of corporate financial management. The underlying theme for such a course is to adopt financial management concepts useful in one country context to the additional variables and constraints prevalent in the international environment.

Course Orientation:

The course can be oriented, in its emphasis, to be either "professional" or "theoretical." The distinction is not as clear as one might like to have. It should only be understood in terms of the primary emphasis which an instructor is willing to place in order to better suit the combined needs of the students and the program.

For the course to be "professionally" oriented, it would be geared towards meeting the needs of students or business executives who are or will be employed by multinational firms. The course would primarily emphasize problem solving approach while learning the techniques of international financial management.

For the course to be "theoretically" oriented, it would be primarily emphasizing model building, testing various hypotheses, examining theories of foreign exchange forecasting, testing the efficiency of foreign exchange markets etc. Under this orientation, the emphasis would be more on reviewing recent scholarly research.

Course Prerequisites:

In order for the course to be most meaningful, students should have the background knowledge of an introductory course in Corporate Finance. A course in International Trade and Economics is desirable but not mandatory.

Course Contents:

The course contents should provide a smooth transition from macroeconomic orientation to the microeconomic one. Students should be made familiar with the firm's international environment and the topics such as international monetary system, balance of payments accounting, determination of foreign exchange rates under alternative systems etc. Some of this material may overlap with the contents of a course in International Economics, but their treatment is essential to the international financial manager.

The rest of the course content may run parallel to the topical sequence to the one generally found in a business finance text. In doing so, one is essentially extending the financial decision making process to an international setting. The following list of topics suggest typical course contents for a course in International Finance:

1. Introduction: The Multinational Firm and Multinational Financial Management.

2. Environment of International Financial Management:

   (1) The International Monetary System
   (2) Balance of Payments Accounting
   (3) The International Debt Problem
   (4) The Foreign Exchange Markets

3. Foreign Exchange Risk Management:

   (1) Forecasting Exchange Rate Changes
   (2) Measuring Foreign Exchange Exposure
   (3) Managing Foreign Exchange Exposure

4. Foreign Investment Analysis:

   (1) Corporate Strategy and Foreign Investment Decision
   (2) Capital Budgeting for Multinational Corporation
   (3) The Measurement and Management of Political Risk

5. Financing Foreign Operations:

   (1) International Financial Markets

(2) The Cost of Capital for Foreign Investments

(3) International Banking

(4) Import and Export Financing

(5) Designing a Global Financing Strategy

6. Multinational Working Capital Management and Control:

(1) Multinational Current Asset Management

(2) International Performance Evaluation and Control

(3) Comparative Accounting and Financial Statement Analysis

(4) International Tax Planning

Teaching Strategy:

If the course is taught with a "professional" orientation, the instructor may wish to supplement the text book with cases. A number of good text and case books are now available. Alternatively, if the course is designed to be taught with a "theoretical" orientation, the instructor may wish to supplement the text with a book of readings or assign selected readings from recent literature (see Appendix A).

Table 1

NET PURCHASES OF U.S. SECURITIES BY FOREIGN INVESTORS

(Billions of U.S. Dollars)

Year	Equities	Corporate Bonds	U.S. Treasury Notes and Bonds
1982	$3.9	$ 1.8	$17.5
1983	5.4	0.9	5.8
1984	-2.9	11.9*	21.5
1985	4.9	39.8	29.2
1986(P)	18.6	43.5	24.3

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* 1984 was the first year to include Eurodollar issue.

(P) Preliminary estimate

Source: U.S. Department of Treasury

APPENDIX A

POSSIBLE TEXTS FOR A COURSE IN INTERNATIONAL FINANCE

Abdullah, Faud A., *Financial Management for a Multinational Firm,* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1987.

Eiteman, David K. and Arthur Stonehill, *Multinational Business Finance,* 4th ed. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing, 1986.

Levi Maurice, *International Finance: Financial Management and the International Economy,* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1983.

Kim, Suk H., *International Business Finance,* Reston, Va.: Reston Publishing, 1983.

Rodriguez, Rita M., and E. Eugene Carter, *International Financial Management,* 3rd ed. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1984.

Shapiro, Alan C., *Multinational Financial Management,* 2nd ed. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1986.

POSSIBLE COLLECTION OF SUPPLEMENTAL THEORETICAL READINGS

Donald R. Lessard, editor, *International Financial Management:* Theory and Application, Second Edition, New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1985.

Abraham M. George and Ian H. Giddy, editors, *International Finance Handbook,* Volumes 1 and 2, New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1983.

POSSIBLE COLLECTIONS OF SUPPLEMENTAL CASES

Carlson, Robert S. et.al., *International Finance: Cases and Simulation,* Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1980.

Dufey, Gunter and Ian H. Giddy, *50 Cases in International Finance,* Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1987.

INTERNATIONALIZING PRODUCTION OPERATIONS MANAGEMENT IN A NEWLY CREATED COURSE AT EMU: POM - A WORLD BUSINESS VIEW

by

Nesa L'abbe Wu

Operations Research and Information Systems
College of Business
Eastern Michigan University

INTERNATIONALIZING PRODUCTION OPERATIONS MANAGEMENT IN A NEWLY CREATED COURSE AT EMU:

POM - A WORLD BUSINESS VIEW

by Nesa L'abbe Wu
Operations Research and Information Systems
College of Business
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ABSTRACT

In an effort to increase our productivity and to internationalize our US companies, American companies are learning from Western European and especially from Japanese companies. If our industry is able to understand global production operations management, it will be able to make necessary changes to become more competitive in the global market place. Our younger generation will have to be educated in these global production operations management techniques, rather than just learn the traditional American way of production. Therefore it is necessary to internationalize the production operations management course at Eastern Michigan University. This paper presents the content of such a course that is now being offered at our school.

INTRODUCTION

There are three parts to this International Production Operations Management course. In the first part the students are being introduced to the productive system, the role of production/operations management and productivity management.

In the second section of the course the students are studying the design aspects, of the productive system, by focussing on product/service design, process planning & manufacturing technology and facilities planning.

Finally, the third section addresses the planning and control aspects of production/operations management. Topics include maintenance and quality management, production/inventory planning and control systems, and planning and control of repetitive manufacturing.

This course highlights POM techniques in the U.S.A., basics of Japanese production management, production management of industrial enterprises in China, and the concerns of the European production managers. The world wide differences in POM techniques are illustrated early in the course by discussing various readings on "Plant Tours" conducted in Japanese, Chinese, European and American companies.

Because of the curriculum orientation of this topic a complete detailed course outline follows.

DETAILED COURSE OUTLINE

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

1. The Productive System; 2. Role of Production/Operations Management; 3. Types of Productive Systems; 4. Historical Notes; 5. Basics of Japanese Production Management; 6. Production Management of Industrial Enterprises in China; 7. The European Production Managers and their Concerns.

CHAPTER II: PRODUCTIVITY MANAGEMENT AND PLANT TOURS

1. Overview of Productivity Management; 2. Productivity Measurement; 3. Classical Productivity Measures; 4. Framework for Productivity Management of Subfunctions of Organization; 5. Improving Productivity via Quality Control Circles; 6. Plant Tours (Toyota, Kawasaki U.S.A., Baoding General Sewing Machine Factory in China, North Sea Machine Tool Factory in China, Norcen Industries U.S.A., Jos. A. Bank Clothiers, U.S.A., Burger King Restaurant U.S.A,

CHAPTER III: PRODUCT/SERVICE DESIGN

1. Function of Product Design; 2. Types of Product Design Activities; 3. Business Strategies affecting the design in U.S. and Jananese Firms; 4. World Wide Principles in Product Design; 5. Product Design Procedure (U.S. versus Japan); 6. U.S. Dominance in Computer Aided Design (CAD); 7. Worldwide Involvement in Group Technology For Product Design;

CHAPTER IV: PROCESS PLANNING AND MANUFACTURING TECHNOLOGY

1. Function of Process Planning; 2. World Wide Use of Forms and Documents for Process Planning; 3. Computer Aided Manufacturing (CAM) and Characteristics of Mcdern Process Design; 4. Manufacturing System Selection; 5. Universal Flexible Manufacturing Systems (FMS); 6. Transfer Lines and Automated Assembly Systems; 7. Robot Technology; 8. Computer Integrated Manufacturing in the U.S. and European Countries (the United Kingdom, West Germany and France); 9. China's Technological Change.

CHAPTER V: FACILITIES PLANNING

1. Introduction to Facilities Location; 2. Factors Affecting Facilities Location; 3. Classical Facilities Location Decision Process; 4. Locating Twin Plant Industries for the U.S.A.; 5. Japanese Versus U. S. Capacity Planning ; 6. Universal Layout Considerations and Objectives; 7. Universal Types of Layout; 8. Japanese Versus American Manufacturing Layouts.

CHAPTER VI: MAINTENANCE AND QUALITY MANAGEMENT

1. Objective and Organization of Maintenance; 2. Types of Maintenance Activities; 3. Western Versus Japanese Maintenance Management; 4. Introduction to Quality Control; 5. Japanese Versus American Quality Control; 6. Worldwide Implementation of Total Quality Control (TQC) and Company Wide Quality Control (CWQC).

CHAPTER VII: PRODUCTION/INVENTORY PLANNING AND CONTROL SYSTEMS

1. Introduction to Production/Inventory Planning and Control; 2. America's Material Requirement Planning System; 3. Western Traditional Planning Systems; 4. The Japanese Just-In-Time System; 5. Comparing the Just-In-Time System, the Traditional (EOQ, POQ) Systems and MRP; 6. On the Feasibility of Adopting the Japanese JIT Production/Inventory Systems in the U.S. and Western Europe.

CHAPTER VIII: PLANNING AND CONTROL OF REPETITIVE MANUFACTURING

1. Repetitive Manufacturing in the United States; 2. Japanese Manufacturing - Background of the Productivity Machine; 3. Overview of Japanese Systems and what we can learn from them; 4. Kanban: The Japanese System for Controlling Material; 5. Combining Kanban and MRP, The Yamaha Pymac System; 6. Scheduling the Japanese Supplier.(From: Hall, Robert "Driving the Productivity Machine, Production Planning and Control in Japan", American Production and Inventory Control Society, Inc., 1981, Falls Church.)

TEACHING CROSS-CULTURAL CONFLICT MANAGEMENT SKILLS

by

David A. Victor, Ph.D.

Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, Michigan 48197

TEACHING CROSS-CULTURAL CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

The Need for Cross-Cultural Conflict Management Skills

The American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB), the accrediting agency for U.S. business schools, changed its standards in 1974 in a way that affects all concerned with the teaching of culture and language studies and the teaching of business. The AACSB required all accredited schools of business to reflect worldwide as well as domestic facets of business.

This modification of standards embodied a growing concern among the members of this most influential of accrediting agencies. In calling for a global focus for business curricula, at least among North American business schools, the AACSB officially acknowledged an issue which those in the business community itself have stressed for some time: business educators must prepare their graduates to participate effectively in an increasingly competitive and integrated world economy. As E. A. Costanyo, vice president of Citibank, has observed:

> Multinational business is becoming so important that the business school had better prepare its students for it. The young man who graduates from one of our business schools without the realization of the scope and thrust of multinational business is as unprepared for the reality of our economy as the young man who graduates without a little accounting knowledge. [1]

International trade and multinational operations have grown much more important to the business strength of the United States than in the past. Ironically, though, the global balance sheet for the United States has weakened dramatically over the last two decades. Many factors have, arguably, contributed to this weakened U.S. stature in the overal global economy. Low rates of productivity growth, domestic inflation and the comparative value of the dollar against other currencies have all influenced the nation's international trade record, as have other issues. However, many business experts have argued that among the most serious obstacles to success for the United States in international trade is the relative lack of sensitivity to the role intercultural factors play in conducting business in a global setting.[2]

International managers (and increasingly there can be no wholly domestic managers) must be able to understand ways to cope with problems that arise out of channels, conflict and change peculiar to conducting business abroad. To do so effectively, managers must have the skills to participate in other nations' markets and business environments. Managers must learn to understand the nature of cultures other than their own.

As people shift from one culture to another, business practices shift as well. As Robert Moran and Philip Harris have observed:

> International managers agree that communicating with foreign managers and clients is a primary responsibility and usually involves negotiating with others who are culturally different. The key problem for these managers is addressing such factors as different negotiating styles and contrasting cultural conditioning, which make each nation's negotiators behave and react in many different and unpredictable ways. [3]

Among the most important areas that business educators thus need to address to prepare their students fully to compete effectively in world markets are cross-cultural negotiating and conflict management skills.

The Focus of Cross-Cultural Conflict Business Instruction

To teach cross-cultural business, including negotiating and conflict management skills, the instructor must prepare to students to fully understand the markets into which they enter as managers. Such skills, in turn, lead the manager away from a view of the world as divided into foreign and domestic markets. Instead of foreign markets their can only be someone else's domestic market. As Koji Kobayashi, the chairman of Nippon Electric Company, has said of his company's approach to the United States, "The United States is our second domestic market."[4]

Yet an understanding thorough enough to view another culture as a "second domestic market" is beyond the realm of a single college course. Indeed some may argue that for the purposes of conducting business in a global economy, learning a a large amount about single culture is in itself somewhat futile. The field in which global business is played is unlikely to limit itself to one or two select countries or cultures.

Instead those educators who wish to train their students for a productive part in an integrated world economy must provide the students with a means of evaluating each culture in which they might find themselves. Instead of producing experts on, say, France or Japan or Indonesia, educators should strive to graduate experts on observing how business is conducted in other cultures, regardless of the nature of any one business or national setting. In short, educators should not provide students with a checklist of does and don'ts for conducting business in any particular culture. Instead, students should learn how to ask the right questions for wherever they may find themselves. By being trained to ask the right questions, the students can, in essence, train themselves for the various cultures in which they will eventually conduct business.

Cross-Cultural Conflict Management and Negotiation Instruction

In the international business communication course designed by the author and currently taught at Eastern Michigan University, a two-tiered instructional approach is taken for teaching conflict management and negotiations in a global setting. Both tiers rest on the question-asking framework described above. In the first tier, students are taught those factors most likely to shift in a business setting across cultures. In the second tier, students are taught to apply these factors to a five-step model for conflict management.

Essentially, students examine the role of seven central factors contributing to cultural differences likely to manifest themselves in the workplace. [5] The seven factors are summed up in a model called LESCANT, an acronym for the first letter of each factor: language, environment and technology, social organization, contexting, authority conception, nonverbal communication and behavior, and temporal conception. Each LESCANT factor, in turn, is divided into several subcategories. While some areas overlap at areas (religion, for example, falls firmly into social organization and authority conception in many cultures), on the whole, the questions derived under each are intended to be discrete areas of inquiry.

The students are then taught to apply the factors contributing to cultural differences to a five-part model for conflict management.[6] First students assess their own perspectives of the conflict situation, examining their own attitudes as shaped by the LESCANT factors. Second, the student is asked to acknowledge the other party' perspective, again examining the role the LESCANT factors play in that perspective. Third, the attitude of the conflicting parties is examined, that is the consideration of behavior and perspective from the point of view of both parties. Possible courses of action are decided upon next gauging solutions within a cultural context of such LESCANT affected variables as trust, credibility, problem expression, status, ability to accurately convey information, and flexibility. In particular the students strive for synergistic solutions in which cultural differences are approached not from a right or wrong approach but from one in which entirely new alternatives surface, due to variant ways of viewing the situation inherent in cross-cultural differences. Finally, the student is encouraged to analyze the process as a review of the previous stages.

Concluding Comments

While the approach and need for cross-cultural training discussed here focuses on business training and conflict management in particular, one such training need not be limited to management classes. Indeed, in so multidisciplinary a field, it is important that the principles of cross-cultural interaction in any one field be reinforced in as many related fields as possible. Thus, while the language instructor might not necessarily discuss conflict management, the appropriateness of factors affecting cross-cultural differences in international conflict management would remain pertinent in discussion of the culture of the language taught. Similarly, instructors of other business studies -- marketing, finance or production systems -- might also find such an approach useful. Indeed, in an integrated world economy business students will be best prepared only when they receive a global perspective at least to some extent on all areas of study they undertake.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Quoted in Donald A. Ball and Wendell McCulloch, Jr., International Business: Introduction and Essentials, 2nd Edition, Plano, Texas: Business Publications, Inc., 1985, p.2.

[2] See, for example, Pierre Casse, Training for the Cross-Cultural Mind. Washington, D.C.: The Society for Intercultural Education, Training and Research, 1980; Geert Hofstede, Cultures Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values. Beverly Hills, California: SAGE Publications, 1984; and Philip R. Harris and Robert T. Moran, Managing Cultural Differences. Houston: Gulf Publishing Co., 1979.

[3] Quoted in Simcha Ronen, Comparative and Multinational Management. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1986, p. 91.

[4] Quoted in Kenichi Ohmae, Triad Power: The Coming Shape of Global Competition. New York: The Free Press, 1985, p. 74.

[5] These factors were based on material compiled during an extensive study of the subject, sponsored in large part by two U.S. Department of Education grants that Eastern Michigan University received and which I co-authored and authored solely respectively.

[6] This model was developed with Deborah Borisoff and Maria Loffreddo, both of New York University.

TEACHING INTERCULTURAL BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

John W. Gould
University of Southern California

The instructor who has had no formal preparation for teaching intercultural business communication as an element in an undergraduate or graduate course in business communication, marketing, or general management need not despair when coming to grips with the task. Willingness to read up on the culture and ability to recruit representatives of the culture for classroom interaction are all that one needs to make an initial assault on the problem and provide an exciting pair of class sessions which will prompt students to pursue deeper understanding on their own.

Let us assume that students in a given course want to know what they would be up against if they were to be assigned to work in Japan. The perceptive instructor will readily conclude that a module on the subject should include key characteristics of the culture, western stereotypes of the Japanese, Japanese stereotypes of westerners, Japanese business protocol, and Japanese negotiation practices. Ways to provide this information are discussion with a country expert (presumably recruitable from among one's colleagues in other departments), videotaping of bicultural interaction in which representatives of the two cultures perform a common task (such as planning a picnic), viewing a film on Japanese negotiation practices and engaging in a simulated negotiation, critiquing the interaction and negotiation sessions, and assigning readings to supplement these windows on the culture.

Obviously, the instructor will need to do considerable reading on his or her own before attempting to recruit associates. A list of suitable titles appears at the end of this article. By far the most important of them are texts in colloquial and business Japanese. Language is the one great key to culture. Familiarity with it, let alone ~~if not~~ fluency in it, facilitates adaptation to the culture and conveys assurance to the host national that the visitor is not simply a casual tourist but a person sensitive to the values of the culture. Francis Bacon was correct when he wrote (Of Travel) that the person who travels into a country before having some entrance into the language goes to school and not to travel.

By itself, reading will not be sufficient to ground an instructor solidly in the alien culture. Courses in language, history, foreign trade, and international relations can provide additional dimension to one's understanding, but an instructor usually is too busy to find time for them. So one must search out persons who have lived in the alien culture, worked there, dealt with business persons there, and can point out basic differences between values there and values here. These are the ideal persons to involve in the classroom interactions which invest the module on intercultural business communication with power to influence students positively.

Module Objectives

A module on Japanese culture should be designed to help students know what the Japanese people value highly, know important facts about Japanese history and current events, know what causes intercultural miscommunication in Japan, know which typically American practices might offend a Japanese host, and know what helps a person to adjust to living in Japan. It should also provide clues to developing ability to see the Japanese as people who prize their individuality at the same time they contribute to the preservation and well being of the group. A well-designed module will prepare students to use Japanese terms of courtesy and greeting, explain American life to the Japanese inquirer without bragging or putting down other nations, and behave in ways that the Japanese people will respect.

Content of the Module

In a week or two of class meetings it is not possible to cover all of the following topics, but an effort can be made to touch upon examples of basic geography of the Japanese islands, selected historical events and personages, recent and current notable figures, popular movies and TV shows, sports leagues and competitions, major businesses (names, products, services), Japanese views of U.S.-Japan political and economic relations, major organizations (political parties, universities, religious groups), and the nature of the Japanese language (the writing system, basic phonology, and useful phrases).

Japanese aphorisms, figures of speech, and jokes provide good clues to "the Japanese mind." These can be gleaned from books listed at the close of this article and English language editions of Japanese newspapers (visitors to Japan can be asked to bring home some newspapers for this purpose), but by far the best way to present these insights is in lectures and discussions with country experts. A few hours over lunch with a knowledgeable colleague should be enough time to work out a scenario of questions and answers which will blanket the field; the instructor asks the questions, the country expert answers them, and the students ask their questions in turn.

Once these basic subjects are covered, the student is ready to receive the content of the module which can be generated only by interaction with host nationals. This is the most useful content of all. A simulated negotiation can be arranged in which American students represent an American business firm desiring to do business with a Japanese firm and Japanese nationals represent a team of negotiators from the Japanese firm. (Teams of three or four persons are ideal, but this can be done effectively with as few as two persons on each side of the bargaining table.) Each team is provided with the conditions under which they must negotiate. The observers make notes and assist in debriefing the negotiation session when it is completed. Cultural factors determining the outcome are marked and explained. To drive home the learnings, a film on negotiating with the Japanese can then be shown to illustrate acceptable and unacceptable practices.

Further learning takes place when host nationals and Americans engage in participative decision making, planning joint activities and meeting outside class in social situations designed to afford more interaction.

In preparation for the experiencing of the module, Americans can be asked to study their own culture. Only as they begin to see what characterizes them as Americans can they hope to make meaningful comparisons with another culture's characteristics. This is where it is important to mention the stereotypes which Japanese citizens have of Americans and other westerners. Understanding these stereotypes will reduce the students' chances of failing in their foreign assignments and will increase the likelihood of their being better appreciated at home.

Methods of Delivery

A sensible progression in delivering the content of this module is from conceptual to experiential and back to conceptual. In talking with people of other cultures we normally begin by limiting personal disclosure and focusing on widest, most-likely-to-be-common understandings: the world, our topic, your culture, my culture. Then we narrow the focus: you in your culture, me in my culture. Next we move to: you in my culture, me in your culture. And that's where we stop until we become true friends, at which time we can go deeper and talk about: you (your hopes, fears, challenges, successes, weaknesses, strengths, uncertainties, dilemmas) and me (my hopes, fears, etc.). Rarely if ever will we get to: you and me (I hate you, I love you, I respect you, I distrust you).

Certainly in this module it will be sufficient to get to the level of discussing you and me in our respective cultures. Self-disclosure is not a Japanese trait, and any attempt to force it will result in destroy the possibility of future openness and productive interaction.

Thus it makes sense to begin with a look at the dominant characteristics of our respective cultures and take note of how they differ. This is the conceptual component of the module. It is best delivered via lecture and reading. Next we consider how representatives of our cultures behave in situations where self-disclosure is not directly required but where interaction with people of the other culture is necessary. Then we return to consideration of how the observed behaviors have shaped the interaction and what might be done to insure better outcomes in future encounters.

Use of videotaping in discussions and negotiation simulations is a fine way to capture the interactions and make them subject to analysis. Here again, country experts can be invaluable. The business communication instructor can explain American or other western behavior; the host country national can explain the Japanese behavior.

Through participation and observation, the students are exposed to enough elements in the intercultural activity to promote further investigation. A well-balanced set of readings distributed at the close of the module can serve to generate still more curiosity and ultimate learning.

As in all teaching, much depends upon the instructor's ability to stimulate student interest. Most American students know little about their own culture but will be greatly interested in looking into it once they see how people of other cultures misinterpret their behavior. So the instructor needs to begin by pointing out the stereotypes and their implications for behavior abroad. Other cultures are inherently interesting and will produce a high level of interest when presented by people who really understand them, have lived in them, or are born members of them.

Evaluation of the Module

At the start, one can distribute a questionnaire which solicits responses to statements which touch upon elements in the native and host cultures. By this means, the instructor can assess the degree to which students are already aware or unaware of the module's content. Similarly, at the close, one can distribute the same questionnaire, or perhaps a more complete questionnaire, which elicits the extent to which students are now aware or unaware of important factors bearing on intercultural communication for business purposes in the host culture.

One should also attempt to learn from the students what things they consider most useful in what they learned, the value of each part of the program, their assessment of the quality of each performer's contribution, and what specific actions they would like to take as a result of having experienced the module.

In like manner, the instructor should call for an evaluation by colleagues and other guest participants of their roles and the instructor's role in producing and presenting the module. Constructive suggestions for improvement should be woven into the succeeding offerings of the module.

Recommended Readings

Brislin, Richard W., Kenneth Cushner, Craig Cherrie, and Mahealani Yong, Intercultural Interactions: A Practical Guide (Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, 1986).

Business Japanese: A Guide to Improved Communication (Tokyo: Bonjin Company, Ltd., 1984).

Condon, John, and Keisuke Kurata, What's Japanese About Japan (Tokyo: Shufunotomo Co., Ltd., 1974).

Discover Japan: Words, Customs, and Concepts (Tokyo: Kodansha International Ltd., 1983).

Inamoto, Noboru, Colloquial Japanese (Rutland, Vermont: Charles E. Tuttle Company, 1972).

Kohls, L. Robert, Survival Kit for Overseas Living (Chicago: Intercultural Press, Inc., 1979).

Phatak, Arvind V., International Dimensions of Management (Boston: Kent Publishing Company, 1983).

Rowland, Diana, Japanese Business Etiquette: A Practical Guide to Success with the Japanese (New York: Warner Books, Inc., 1985).

Weeks, William H., Paul B. Pedersen, and Richard W. Brislin, Editors, A Manual of Structured Experiences for Cross-Cultural Learning (Chicago: Intercultural Press, Inc., 1982).

Film

"Doing Business in Japan: Negotiating a Contract" (New York: Vision Associates, 665 Fifth Ave., New York, NY 10022, 1977).

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COMMUNICATION IN GLOBALIZED MARKETS: AN INTERDISCIPLINARY TEACHING APPROACH

by

Dr. Claire M. Badaracco
Marquette University
College of Journalism
Milwaukee, WI 53233

"COMMUNICATION IN GLOBALIZED MARKETS: AN INTERDISCIPLINARY TEACHING APPROACH"

By Dr Claire M. Badaracco, Marquette University

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As American business searches for practical solutions among Japanese management techniques to ease its transition from the Industrial to the Information Age, it finds itself, as one businessman put it, "awake but not yet out of bed." If we take into account the assessment by futurists that in this globalized Information Economy, America's principal product will be "education, publishing, the media, communications, management and administration, research and development, finance and insurance, and much of the work of government" (Ruch 259), then those of us in the Academic world -- so frequently differentiated from the "real" world of business decision-making -- will need to incorporate the realities of this globalized information economy into the structure, substance, and rationale of our thinking.

We live in a time of the post-specialist, if you will, when being able to cite the proverbial figure about angels dancing on pin heads makes us less brilliant, finally, than knowing how many other pins there are, and estimating the projected population of angels, not to mention knowing something about the communication and cultural values implicit in the structure of the languages they speak.

In a globalized market in the Information Age, some popular futurists have predicted, the university will replace the factory as the central institution of society. Lifelong education, retraining, job changes every one to five years may be the norm. Information will represent not only power, but wealth. The American economy will be based upon education, information and communication management in all sectors. Yet American companies have not achieved the same type of worldwide information-gathering program as have the Japanese [Toffler], and American educational institutions remain in the reactive, defensive posture they assumed in the early seventies when educational "relevance" crept into the vernacular.

The current debate raised by Secretary of Education William Bennett, and the Carnegie Institute's Ernest Boyer in his recent report on American Undergraduate Education, about whether or not the values of a professional school can be integrated with the values of a liberal arts education, more suited to the Industrial rather than the Information Age.

If American education is to serve the future, it must develop not only a greater interdisciplinary capability, but a willingness to integrate the work of the academy, with the realities of business and industry. Interdisciplinary approaches to problem-solving are a reality if American education is to thrive, and not be bought out or taken over by a Japanese joint-venture, or other competitive political power that has demonstrated that it can provide a better system of education in a more cost-effective way in a globalized market. For who would claim in a time of escalating budget deficits and state and federal cutbacks in education that American Education is immune from the competition of global market forces. We have seen the--

Same ¶

unthinkable-- the demise of American manufacturing-- become a reality, and with it, the massive losses of American jobs. Who would say the same cannot occur in American education?

In an experimental seminar I have been teaching in the College of Journalism this semester, titled "Media and Business," an interdisciplinary class composed of students majoring in Business, Economics, Public Relations, Broadcasting, Spanish, and English, began the term by studying comparatively Japanese and American corporate communication patterns, using Willaim Ruch's superb study _Corporate Communications. A Comparison of Japanese and American Practices_, in order to elucidate cultural values, symbols, and signs. The American media use cultural symbols and signs to communicate about commerce -- they speak largely in "win/ loss" scenarios, in tv rather than technical language, about the stark black and white fortunes of the rise and fall of heroes or bums; that is the language of "Dallas" as much as Horatio Alger, and it is quintessentially American.

My premise is that media can only operate within the linguistic framework of the culture, so identifying what the media value can be a useful mirror in environmental scanning for business as it attempts to forecast trends, plan strategically for its public relations , and engage in proactive media relations in order to manage what appears to be a potentially "hot" issue that may have an impact upon its profit~~ability~~, market share, image to consumers, or status vis-a-vis federal regulations or state laws that may affect its future health. The students' term papers were team project trend analyses of issues in four industrial groups, selected on the basis of student interest: the communications, financial services, advertising ,and beverage industries. I will apply the principals we used in the seminar here in order to examine education as an industry, and to provide some suggestion of how the interdisciplinary seminar operated.

The seminar considered stereotypical views of business that the American media holds, and in turn, the stereotypical view of the media that business has frequently held. Then we took up the role of government in this communication triangle in order to see more clearly the impact of corporate public relations, and of trade relations upon the public communication processes in the American marketplace. Not only corporations, but all institutions, are part of the nation's public information system. Business communicates with government through the media; by exposing politically sensitive information or business decisions, the media can exert influence upon the public policy arena.

Government reacts to this debate about itself and business in the media forum, and initiates laws, regulations, and rulings in order to curb or foster specific trends that can be equated with the existence of issues or news events. This relationship between government and business is a volatile one, highly reactive to political climates. The media, and public opinion shape those climates. In effect, the media consumer is the government's best customer, what Martin Linsky of the Harvard School of Government calls a "media democracy," in his book How the Press Affects Federal Policymaking, the second text book we used. ~~in the course.~~ The sophistication of this public communication process has resulted in the development of electronic lobbying and advocacy advertising in the marketing sciences, and of issues management, trend analysis, and futures forecasting in strategic planning, corporate communications, and the public relations functions in the management and decision sciences.

We began, as I say, with the objective of taking a cultural viewpoint, comparatively, toward US corporate communication patterns. Integral to that view was a linguistic approach. One must take into account for example, the complexity of the Japanese written language -- with some 49,000 characters consisting of up to 48 strokes each, of which 1,850 are used in commerce, in order to understand why Japanese prefer verbal to written communication. Similarly, in the US, where our vocabulary consists of approximately 800,000 words, with 800 in marketplace usage, with some 14,000 definitions, strong bi and tri lingualism, and regional dialects, our culture, understandably, has tended to prefer to "get it in writing."

We began to talk about American commercial culture with David Whitten's very fine examination of The Emergence of Giant Enterprise in America, 1860-1914, the third required text for the course, which chronicled the rise of the five and dime, the A&P, the sewing machine, automobile, sugar, forest and communications industries. With that as a basis, we discussed the implications for spin-off industries, extending to the rise of motels, the global soft drink industry, and so forth, and even discussed the implications of these industries upon the American landscape, the era of freeways, of highway signage, of neon, of roadside diners and drive-in movies -- all American commerical artifacts which have been exploited by the media.

Our secondary objective, no less important, was to understand American Management itself as an industry. As this audience is undoubtedly aware, in the history of American Management Theory, what was once called "business communication" was a slim chapter in a fundamentals textbook now it is the whole book. All this has happened very fast. Seventy-five years ago, Frederick Taylor [1911] ~~Scientific School]~~ explained a profitable workplace as one which was dependent on such complexities as "planning ahead," and Frank Gilbreath [1914] conducted time and motion studies to tell employees how to move on the line or factory floor without wasting energy Barely a decade later [1927] Elton Mayo and his associates [Fritz Roethlisberger, William Dickson] debunked Gilbreath's time and motion studies, at Western Electric, when they proved than the quality of changes in the workplace environment were less important than the fact that stasis was demoralizing, and led to reduced productivity What workers need most to know is that they are perceived as human by management This perception continues to inform the corporate communciation policy of such "giants" as IBM, particularly when it comes to downsizing operations [Wall St Journal, 4/8/87, 1].

So for more than 50 years, American business has known that communicating about human needs in the workplace may have a greater impact upon the bottom line than mechanical operations of the plant, or actual job requirements.In the 40's German psychologists contributed to the growth of American Management theory the concept of two-way communication [Alexander Heron/Paul Pigors], and the importance of communicating upward. By the 1950's, choice of effective media for communicating in the workplace began to become a discipline. That time period is ~~both the~~ [illegible] the beginning of the Information Age, when more American workers were employed in white collar rather than blue collar manufacturing jobs [1956]. In the day and age when literature expressed the alienation of the American worker, such as in Arthur Miller's Death of a Salesman, researchers began to establish that productivity could be directly related to how people felt about corporate climates.

In the last twenty years, the critical period of economic change in the shift from an industrial to an informational base, many traditional academic disciplines have jumped onto the management theory bandwagon. In addition to communication theorists, there have been social psychologists, anthropologists, linguists, information systems technologists, who have contributed to the growth of this literature --- even literary scholars use the classics to demonstrate effective decision-making to executives in summer seminars.

Two observations might be relevant here: first, it is in the theory of management that we can find evidence of a successful interdiciplinary approach in academe; second, there is no similar, correlative development of an interdisciplinary body of management theory concerning academe itself relevant to the future of American Education as a business. In effect, academics have made something of a business of commenting about how business ought to be managed. May I suggest that it is extremely important, for the future of academe, that business begin to examine and comment about how the academy manages itself. For we do not have in higher education a similar, professionally progressive history of concern about educational management, about workplace values, about the conditions that are conducive to productivity in workers (and by workers I mean both professors as well as students) that a scholarly chronicle like William Ruch's, cited above, ~~has done~~ Represents for American Business.

The management theories Ruch recounts, which evolved in the American workplace, did not spring full blown from American culture, but from the competition for American manufactured goods in a worldwide economy. If the future American economy will be based upon education, information and communication management in all sectors, American companies do not yet have a globally competitive attitude toward information-gathering. To an extent, if I may generalize, the attitude of American companies toward information is too greatly influenced by the example of our government, which would confine, restrict and classify into "secret" categories information which should or should not enter the public policymaking/media forum, not all of which is militarily significant.

¶ American business is still recovering from the view that information, which is power, ~~which~~ belongs only to an elite, and that workers do not necessarily have a "right to know" what they do not "need to know," an attitude toward information which is influenced by government's. Perversely, ~~the~~ American education falls somewhere behind American business in this regard, and it is this outmoded attitude toward information which epitomizes the argument of both secretary of education William Bennett and the Carnegie Institute's Ernest Boyer, as well as many of the contemporary arguments over freedom of information and academic integrity that go on as part of the daily fare of academe.

American education is light-years behind the American corporation in its long-range planning for the influx of information that lies ahead, in its acceptance of the demographics of the Information Age. Life in an Information Economy will be "almost totally different," according to Ruch who draws upon the work of several scholarly futurists, as well as the mass culture writers Toffler and Naisbitt."We're heading into a period where change is the norm," he declares, where both the scope and rate of change will be areas where we will see unprecedented activity. As well as the population explosion, particularly among third world, poverty countries, there will be an accelerated accumulation of knowledge which will, according to futurists, double every year by 1995. By the year 2040, with some 200 million new books published since 1975, a library will need 5,000 miles of shelving to store just one copy of those books.

Where will academics be in all of this? Preserving the classic canonical literature that has been considered sacred for centuries? If academics produce even a miniscule part of those 200 million new books, what sector of the society, and what parts of the global economy will be producing the majority of those publications? How will the rapid acceleration of information change how university professors teach students to retrieve, assimilate, use, control, manage and communicate the information produced in those volumes?

The university's tenure system, which Americans borrowed from medieval Europe, when it needed to compete with the superior, more sophisticated image of "old world" education during the 19th Century, works to accommodate stasis rather than change. The cost to American education, in lawsuits, in the lost generations of scholars, and well-documented, widely-publicized, "ruined lives" would throw many packaged products enterprises in Chapter 11. Should global competition put the American educational system in a position to fight for market share, the theory that the tenure system produces a "higher quality of faculty" might one day be regarded by some, as a management principle as naive as Elton Mayo's turning on and off the lights at the Western Electric plant in 1927, and concluding that workers were more productive in a darkened room. In a globalized information economy, where rapidly accelerating change is endemic, inflexible management principles that reinforce stasis will put the institution in danger of becoming obsolete.

According to a February '87 *Issues Management Letter* published by the Corporate Information Center, which tracks public exposure in the national media of key topics, "educational management" is off the charts, as the media is pre-occupied by the short term crises that have characterized the past year of the Reagan administration. But I am taking a futurist's stance, for purposes of argument, using the techniques of environmental scanning that detect issues in their infancy, before they emerge, before they make their way into the media, get "hot" and are unmanageable. As my seminar learned this semester, among the most important principles of the Media and Business relationship is an ability to read analytically the consumer, trade and popular print publications, to spot that news item on page 9 of the first section, or on page 3 of the second section, and use the mulipler effect, projecting forward the event or incident or potential issue on a 6-18 month timeline, then on a 2 to 5 year timeline. If that "buried" item received more notice, if the spotlight of public attention were to focus

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upon it, what would be the CONSEQUENCE for business, or government?

upon it, what would be the consequence for business, or for government?

~~As~~ In Journalism is said to be the process of "self-education," and the process of this journalism seminar has ~~served to~~ added to my own. At first, I was interested in the interaction among corporate relations/external communication practitioners, and the impact of business upon the formation of economic and fiscal policy that was conducive to its health. I had the perspective that business contributed substantially to the climate of government. While it is too easy to conclude (though we all readily do) that media is both a gatekeeper of information and the watchdog over government corruption and a vital part of the check and balance system in a democracy where corporate America has a great deal of influence, as the seminar continued, it became clear that the overwhelming number of issues that become "hot" through the spotlight of media attention, and result in restrictive or regulatory rulings, are for the most part, unanticipated.

The information as well as the electronic technology to anticipate these events or issues has been around for more than a decade. Yet business is becoming educated to the cost-basis need for electronic scanning of information, print and broadcast media, for maintaining futurists as part of their strategic planning operation on a case-by-case basis,as they find themselves embroiled in costly damage control, or in a defensive lobbying position, a very expensive proposition. Undoubtedly the AIDS epidemic will have an impact upon how businesses regard strategic planning, media scanning and issues management,as important to cost containment-- particularly among the financial services industries (and there are other crises we could name).

Finally, it is not what we pick up through scanning that will ~~save the day~~ determine our future, for business or for educational institutions, but what we can learn from another culture's way of seeing. Whether it is the relationships within an organization, its notions of human potential, of connectedness, of mutuality -- or of interdisciplinarity-- this is the most important way we have of transferring technology, and it is rooted in a humanistic approach to management theory. For it only becomes clear to us who we are, what we value, and how we see things when we are confronted with a gobal view: and that, in a nutshell, is the beauty as well as the rub.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE SIXTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE
ON
LANGUAGES AND COMMUNICATION FOR
WORLD BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

PART IV.

DOING BUSINESS AROUND THE WORLD

NON-WESTERN BUSINESS INTERACTIONS:

MAKING USE OF THE "COMMUNAL" SPHERE

Submitted to:

J. Jeffrey Auer
Editor,
World Communication
World Communication Association
Indiana University

Submitted by:

Jeffrey A. Fadiman
Professor,
International Marketing
International Business
Communication
San Jose State University

There is a dimension of intercultural communication that is often hidden from Americans who work abroad. While relevant to US personnel in every field, its use may prove most beneficial to those who market goods and services in other cultures. Most specialists in foreign trade find culture, commerce, and communication too tightly interwoven to ignore. Their work not only requires translation of the US marketing message into terms intelligible to foreign clientele, but the deciphering of local concepts into American terms. Often, these concepts contain more than one level of meaning. This research explores the "communal" aspect of non-Western communication as used in conducting business.

This level of communication seems most pronounced among those third-world nations (Arab, Africa, Asian) still in transition from an earlier "communal" heritage to more contemporary capitalist norms. Within these cultures, aspects of both commerce and communication are based upon these earlier traditions, thus reflecting values of which Americans may be unaware.

Most Arabs, Africans, and many Asians share such values. Communal aspects of their heritage differ considerably from the North American ideal of individualism. Within these cultures, men (and women) can define themselves in two quite different ways; as individuals and members of communal groups. Each identity provides them with specific obligations, both to themselves and those groups that form their larger social setting. Within these cultures, therefore, individuals strive not only to advance their private interests but those of social and economic "networks" (clan, tribe, caste, sect, ethnic group, etc.) to whom they owe emotional allegiance.

This dualism can also operate when members of these cultures interact with foreigners, especially when developing the initial contacts that are prerequisite to doing business. Often, an Arab, African, or Asian businessman may follow a dual logic that differs somewhat from our own, conducting commerce on both a private and communal level.

Both dimensions should be equally important to overseas Americans. We may respond appropriately to individual behavior, particularly if it reflects our own. Communal nuances, however, may have no parallels within our culture, or may even violate its norms. In consequence, we may miss (or be offended by) these aspects of the foreign message, unable or unwilling to recognize them even after they appear.

One personal example may illustrate the problem. Like many overseas Americans, I have worked in several cultures where the act of drinking local liquor has both individual and communal meaning. Within these regions, invitations to participate in local drinking bouts can play a crucial role in both cross-cultural and commercial communication. Within many areas, however, the drinking gourd (or bottle, glass, etc.) is passed in turn to every person in the group, a custom many Americans may find difficult to accept.

On an individual level, it is obvious to everyone--including foreigners--that such a group is simply sharing the available intoxicant in equal measure among its members. At the communal level, it may not be as evident--especially to foreigners--that the continued sharing is a communal ritual, intended to generate feelings of fellowship, group unity, and mutual comraderie.

I have seen many Americans shrink from drinking out of communal vessels, since to do so would have violated widely held US beliefs regarding germs, health, and personal sanitation. Yet, most third-world peoples feel that refusing to share both local drink and drinking implements cuts off the deviant from rituals explicitly intended to create communal feelings, thereby offending every willing member of the group. If unaware of this reaction, Americans might well offend. Only when made cognizant of both the individual and communal levels of this (or any other) foreign interaction, can they begin to formulate appropriate responses.

Often, this second level of communication is hidden from Americans because it lies outside the normal range of US thought. This may be particularly true for concepts that relate to doing business. Certain ideas in US corporate culture, for example, have no clear parallels in third-world thought--among them the uniquely American concept of "marketing." Thus, third-world businessmen who wish to interact effectively with US firms must first research those aspects of our inner logic that lie outside their own traditions. Similarly non-Western concepts such as Jai Yen (cool hearts: Thai), Insha Allah (God's will: Arab), and Uthoni (bonding: Kenya) may hold hidden levels of communal meaning that may impact sharply on commercial practice.

It can obviously be argued that these meanings vary sharply among each people studied, since every Arab, African, or Asian social context is both culturally and commercially unique. Nonetheless, this research indicates that specific similarities--in physical behavior, verbal communication, and psychological intent--can be identified among non-Western businessmen in every region. Initially, the more communal of these traits may be "invisible" to most Americans, simply because they lie outside the normal range of our ideas. Notwithstanding, as US businessmen become aware that third-world interactions may operate on two dimensions, these hidden meanings can be both profitably explored and put to corporate use.

This paper will therefore consider four instances of cross-cultural interaction, selecting those that every US businessman would be most likely to experience on first entering a third-world culture and contacting local counterparts. In each case, both "visible" (individual) and "hidden" (communal) aspects of the interaction will be analyzed. Where relevant, it will explore the reluctance US personnel may feel to participate in local practices, and suggest appropriate adjustments they might make that could prove useful when interacting with their hosts. The paper will conclude with three suggestions that Americans assigned to third-world nations may find useful to begin an exploration of this less visible dimension, so as to interact appropriately and effectively while in the field.

NON-WESTERN GREETINGS: BEYOND OUR SENSE OF STATUS?

Even the simple act of greeting may operate on both an individual and communal level. Compare the US pattern of initiating social contact with that used in Japan. In corporate America, where "final" personal impressions are believed to form within the first four minutes of a meeting, entire books can be devoted to the art of making contact (Zunin, 1972). It can be argued, notwithstanding, that US greetings have one purpose thus operate on only one dimension. They are standardized and brief, consisting of perfunctory physical contact (handshake, shoulder pat) and equally curt salutations (Hi! How do you do?), meant solely to announce that the speaker has arrived. Replies, equally standardized (Hi! Fine!), are intended to convey nothing more than short-range warmth and welcome.

Among non-Western peoples, however, greetings may operate on two dimensions; one immediately obvious to Westerners, the second "hidden" until they know communal aspects of the culture. In Japan, for instance, the means of making contact is the bow. At one level, it is simply used to signal overt recognition. At a second, less visible and thus less obvious to

Westerners, it determines social, commercial, and nowadays corporate status (Zimmerman, 1985).

When greeting business contacts, for example, Japanese men bow from the hips, back straight, hands at their sides. If strangers, however, each will not only "regulate" his own initial bows, but covertly observe the depth and number of those given by the other to determine his comparative status. This second level of communication emerges even more sharply within groups. Within contemporary corporate settings, for example, "bowers" (sic) must resort to peripheral vision (Miller, 1961), to ascertain the relative status of everyone within the room. As each perceives his standing relative to others, his speech will shift--superiors adopting one form, subordinates another--thereby reflecting mutual awareness that the second "communal" purpose of the greeting has been achieved.

US businessmen may find themselves completely unaware of links between the bow and status. Indeed, the very concept of creating "ranks" among executives who gather in a room may lie beyond American ideas of what social status is about. Notwithstanding, those who miss the second level of this interaction may lose the chance to create initial empathy by greeting foreign colleagues in the local way. Often US executives on assignment to Japan find themselves quite hesitant to bow. Unaware that the gesture has communal meaning for their counterparts, they equate it with subservience rather than status, drawing on Western historical parallels rather than Japan's. It is only upon being taught the value of this second level to their foreign colleagues that they may find themselves more willing to adjust--even symbolically--by lowering their head and shoulders at appropriate occasions.

Even symbolism may seem awkward to the US businessman. Yet, it may greatly please his foreign hosts. Few Japanese executives, in fact, expect

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their US counterparts to be so cognizant of local status nuances as to bow appropriately and seek their rank within a corporate gathering. Notwithstanding, they may warmly approve of those Americans whose symbolic but sincere participation implies awareness and respect for local ways. Such executive approval may be a critical first step towards successful market entry. To acquire it, however, Americans must first become aware that even greetings can hold dual messages.

NON-WESTERN VISITING: BEYOND OUR SENSE OF TIME?

Non-Western forms of visiting may also operate on both personal and communal levels. Personal invitations are easily understood by individuals in every culture. Communal interactions may prove more difficult to recognize, however, in that their purpose lies so far within the future as to rest beyond our normal sense of time.

Most Americans perceive themselves as future-oriented. In fact, when doing business, they may focus far more sharply on the present. One noted authority suggests that we perceive time in small, neatly divisible, and tightly scheduled units (Hall, 1976), focusing on the current instant rather than the far horizon. In consequence, our obsession with immediacy may cause us to be less aware of interactions geared to a more distant future.

Compare, for example, both the "time-frames" and "social motives" of overseas Americans with those of Saudi businessmen, when inviting visitors into their homes. When sent abroad to launch a business venture, most US personnel take little time to entertain at home. Their invitations are often based on impulse. Their motive, straightforward and short-range, is simply to make guests feel welcome for an evening, often by asking them to drop formality and "make themselves (feel as though they were) at home." Once back at work, however, both host and guest "get back to business" and thereby, perhaps unconsciously, resume their formal status.

In contrast, invitations to the homes of Arab business colleagues may convey two different messages, since hosts can have both private and communal goals, the latter quite long-range. The physical layout of a traditional Saudi home may illustrate both strategies. A host's short-range intent may simply be to "honor" foreign guests, thereby making them feel both significant and welcome. In contrast to the US tactic of imposing informality, Saudi's achieve this goal by formally stage-managing each aspect of the evening (Condon and Yousuf, 1975).

On an initial visit, for example, the Western guest may only come into the "majlis," or formal visiting room. Used solely to receive those whom the host intends to honor, it is the host's prized setting, in that its decoration may reflect his wealth, clan heritage, or international experience, simply through appropriate display of artifacts.

The visitor remains within this room, meeting only those (male) family members preselected by his host. His role, formal rather than family-oriented, requires only that he be exposed to what his host considers splendid. As a result, the guest feels he has been honored and the visit's short-range purpose is achieved.

The second level of the invitation is both long-range and based upon the host's communal needs. Its purpose is to create the intimacy needed to convert the new acquaintance into a potential business ally. This message may, however, only grow apparent to Americans over considerable time--a factor that may work initially to keep it hidden.

If an initial visit creates common ground, a host will issue further invitations. In time, a US businessman may find himself invited into the "sitting" room, then gradually into additional rooms, while meeting other family members. As intimacy grows, the introductions may expand to include influential kinsmen, friends, and business associates. Eventually, he may finally be accepted into their communal network, increasingly involved in both its commercial and social affairs. In short, he will be doing business in the local way. If he then evolves, through time, into a useful business ally, the more communal purpose of that initial visit will have been achieved.

Saudis (and other third-world hosts) are often quite aware of US preoccupation with the present. They often joke, for instance, that "ferenj" (Westerners) can see no further than their balance sheet, while Arabs keep their eyes on a horizon (Hoffman, 1986), a sentiment often echoed in East and South East Asia (Redding, 1972, Pye, 1986). Unless aware of long-range goals, however, US guests may not respond as Saudi (or other third-world) hosts expect, refusing second and subsequent social invitations out of a concern for progressive loss of business time, thereby delaying short-range goals.

By so doing, however, they may do more than just offend their foreign hosts. In failing to recognize the host's communal goal, they may lose critical opportunities to become more widely known, not merely to those hosts themselves but members of their social networks. That loss may mean they lack the chance to enter into local ways of doing business. In fact, within these cultures, continuous visiting may form a crucial early step in market entry, but only if the marketer remains aware that invitations operate on more than one dimension.

NON-WESTERN RECIPROCITY: BEYOND OUR SENSE OF OBLIGATION?

Third-world forms of social reciprocity may also function on both an individual and communal dimension. In this instance, Americans may find communal aspects of the system lie outside our sense of social obligation, thus causing us to overlook this level of the interaction.

Compare, for instance, the forms of social reciprocity in use among Americans with those of the Kikuyu, a wealthy and increasingly commerce-oriented people in East Africa (Kenya). Kikuyu visiting strategies seem initially like those used in the Middle East. Like Saudis, Kikuyu businessmen may have both personal and communal reasons for asking US colleagues to their homes.

A host's private goal may be short-range; to enhance the local standing of a foreign guest (and thus his own), by inviting him to meet the most distinguished (male) members of his social and commercial circles. The long-range goal--more communal and therefore less evident to foreigners--may be to forge "uthoni" (bonds) between that guest and members of those circles, ties that may someday prove useful to both sides.

Most visits, therefore, follow similar procedures (Fadiman, 1986). Whether in rural or urban settings, a US guest (usually among the first arrivals) is offered the chair placed at the center of the gathering. He is thereby both immobilized and honored, since everyone must come to him. Wives serve tea or local beer. Daughters provide trays of meat. Gradually, the "big men" (local men of consequence) arrive--the host's kinsmen and colleagues--sometimes in scores, to sit in gradually expanding circles around the foreign guest and grow acquainted with him in their turns. Thus seated, feted, surrounded and lionized, the Westerner indeed feels welcome, and the host's short-range, private purpose is achieved.

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The second level of this interaction, however, may not grow evident to Westerners until the visit ends; for only then do thoughts of host and visitors alike turn to the future fulfillment of communal obligations. From an African perspective, each guest at the communal feast has incurred obligations, most notably the foreigner that everyone has honored. Having accepted hospitality within a group, each member should feel obligated to provide it. More important, this sociability should not only be extended to the host (as in America), but to all other (male) members of his inner circle, with whom the foreign guest has shared the evening and thereby established bonds. In short, the obligation to reciprocate can have both individual and group dimensions.

This does not mean--although sometimes expected--that Americans who visit local homes must reciprocate by hosting constant parties. Rather, it may require adjusting to local standards of reciprocation. One of these allows the other guests, with whom the foreigner has formed a bond ("uthoni") by local standards, to "drop in" when they choose, appearing at any hour at the Westerner's home (or hotel), expecting to continue visiting and become welcomed guests in turn.

Of course, if unaware of these communal expectations, US businessmen may inadvertently react in such a manner as to embarrass drop-in guests, thereby both shaming the hosts who earlier had introduced them and jeopardizing their entire venture. This will not occur, however, through American ill will. We also follow rules of reciprocity. Ours, however, extend only to individuals (host, spouse), rather than entire groups. The very concept of "communal" obligation--reciprocating to a former host's entire social circle--simply would not occur to most US executives. The concept lies beyond our sense of social obligation.

Nor do US rules of reciprocity require that we open up our homes to drop-in guests. On the contrary, within corporate circles, most reciprocity is carefully preplanned. Even the most transient of foreign homes serves as a US castle, that can be barred and shuttered, except on prior invitation. US businessmen may therefore react less than graciously (as does this researcher) when "men of consequence" they met at prior functions appear at every hour, expecting to be welcomed in their homes. From an African perspective, drop-in hospitality is simply part of a communal obligation; from ours, it is a violation of both our personal time schedule and private space. We simply do not often see beyond our individuality.

Notwithstanding, adjustment to these communal concepts may open unexpected doors. Extending reciprocity on local terms and in defiance of the US need for schedules could lead to further invitations, new relationships, and future business opportunities. In regions where relationships are keys to market entry, reciprocation is one tool with which they can be formed. To use it, we need only respond to both its personal and communal dimensions.

NON-WESTERN "DRINKING": BEYOND OUR SENSE OF PROPRIETY?

Finally, both personal and communal nuances can be identified within the ritualized aspects of non-Western social drinking. In this case, Americans may feel that the resulting group behavior lies outside our sense of individual propriety and thus reject this level of interaction. This reluctance, however, may be based on inability to recognize the formation of communal feelings that may provide emotional foundation for subsequent commercial interaction.

Compare, for instance, the values that US corporate circles associate with social drinking, with those held by the Japanese. Recent research into cross-cultural drinking patterns (Wilhelm, 1986) suggests that aside from Moslem-dominated regions in Africa, Asia, and the Middle East, drinking with one's foreign counterparts forms a required part of most third-world business ventures. At the individual level, both the intoxicant itself and the act of drinking are used to lower those formal barriers of verbal courtesy behind which businessmen initially retreat, when faced with someone from a foreign culture. From the communal perspective, the act of sharing alcohol is explicitly intended to encourage the emergence of in-group solidarity, a form of mutual (male) bonding based on shared emotional release.

Wilhelm feels the crucial aspect of drinking rituals in many foreign cultures is that both the rate of alcohol consumption and the amount consumed are controlled communally, by values generated from within the group. This contrasts sharply with corporate American society, where every individual within a social circle is implicitly considered "in control" of what he drinks, and drunkenness is felt to be an individual decision.

In non-Moslem Afro-Asia, these individual decisions may be replaced by pressure from two points; the first by peers within the drinking circle, and the second by the expectations of tradition. In consequence, the rate of alcohol consumption for every individual will be dictated by communal values.

In Japan, for instance, businessmen will gather after hours not just to drink together but to share the act of getting drunk (Chesanow, 1985), often according to a predetermined ritual. Their goal, expressed explicitly in communal terms, is the creation of "ningen kenkai," a network of human relationships expressly intended to further the objectives--whether personal or commercial--of everyone involved within the group (Zimmerman, 1984).

They achieve this by acting out a series of repetitive rituals that may last throughout much of the night. The act of drinking with one another is simply a beginning. Toasts must be consumed and colleagues praised so that glasses can be constantly refilled. To refuse would give offense to everyone within the group by violating its communal spirit.

The drinking ritual is then supplemented by rounds of song (often aided by song books, dispensed by hostesses), and thereafter by "drinking games," not unlike those Americans recall from early days in college (e.g., chug-a-lug), or even childhood (paper, scissors, hammer). There can even be symbolic penalties for "losers," intended neither to punish nor demean but simply create merriment for everyone within the circle (Zimmerman, 1985, Wilhelm, 1986).

Wilhelm suggests that these communal values contrast sharply with the North American desire to retain a sense of individual control. Many of her US informants expressed their own anxiety regarding alcoholic loss of self-control, and characterized the various activities associated with Japanese social drinking (songs, games, penalties, etc.) as "childish" and inappropriate adult behavior. Participation, even in a spirit of good fellowship, went beyond their sense of individual propriety.

The Japanese contend, however, that Westerners who hesitate to join communal rituals may sacrifice a vital business tool. Even on an individual level, they believe it is easiest to "get through to a man's soul at night" (Chesanow, 1985), while the communal unity they seek can be most easily achieved when everyone can laugh in unison at one another and still retain a sense of trust. Such trust can form the vital core of future business interaction. Americans require written documents, regarding signatures as binding. The Japanese--in common with most other third-world peoples--regard the documents as secondary to the trust they place in those who sign them. What better way to build it, particularly with foreigners, than by sharing alcohol and laughter?

In Japanese, foreigners are known as "gai jin" (or gaijin). The words mean "outside man," and originally included anyone outside one's current inner circles (Mitsubishi, 1983). American gai jin, especially those aware of Japanese communal values, may find themselves invited to share local drinking rituals. On a personal level, the invitation is to get drunk. In communal terms, it is to build ningen kankei with local counterparts and thus a base for future business interaction. What should Americans do?

MAKING USE OF THE "COMMUNAL" SPHERE

The conflict inherent within such a choice is typical of the decisions modern US businessmen must make across a growing range of human interactions, not only in Japan but in many other third-world regions. Initially, this may require that they look within themselves, evaluating the extent to which each is willing to participate in "foreign" interactions that jar their individualism, in order to facilitate communal goals.

Those who devise appropriate adjustments may reap considerable reward, both in social and commercial terms. They may not realize, for example, that members of most third-world cultures experience considerable anxiety when dealing with an "outside man." Communal groups in Southern Africa label them as "predators," implying that their only motive in approaching must be malevolent. Philippinos believe that anyone (sila: "them") who lives and works outside their inner circles (tayo: "us") must, by definition be antagonistic (Schlegal, 1964). Japanese (and other East Asians) can suffer what may jokingly be called "gaijin fever," a sense of apprehension and embarrassment when asked to interact with Westerners.

"Outside men" inspire these feelings not only because their customs are unknown, but they lack bonds with members of a third-world group. In consequence, participants in an encounter may not only play the game by different rules, but not even know what rules the other side is using--or even that they exist. Simple prudence, therefore, should suggest that US "outside men" who seek to interact in third-world markets should learn whatever rules seem needed to gain entry to the game. In third-world regions, this may mean research into communal aspects of the culture.

Three steps should be considered when beginning this research. The first is simply to accept the principle that communal levels do exist in third-world interactions, that they may have no parallels in US culture and therefore must be actively investigated to be understood.

The second step should be completed before leaving the US. It consists of approaching area experts--academic and professional, US and foreign born--with in-depth knowledge of specific groups with whom the businessman intends to deal. Such groups might range from clans to cliques to corporations; indeed, in certain areas all three might overlap. In much of Africa, for instance, specific government departments, ministries, and even industries are now controlled by family, clan, or even tribal cabals, who employ, consult, and deal whenever possible exclusively with kin. Within the Philippines, the former ruling family distributed every hectare on Negros Island among 2000 kinsmen, who then united to form both that island's leading social clique and the richest sugar growers' association in the region (Weber, 1986).

In such cases, US firms who choose to trade with these cultures may not only need to work with firms but "families," however locally defined. In practice, this may require them to supplement the normal "country" studies (political, economic, market-based, etc.) with more focused research on those groups--kin-based, social, and commercial--with whom they actually intend to interact. Simple prudence suggests, therefore, that they consult with specialists in local forms of interaction.

The third step, on arrival in the country, is to make extensive inquiries of selected foreign colleagues, particularly those with whom one hopes to build a close relationship. Initial questions could simply focus on personal behavior, primarily how two individuals behave in social (or commercial) situations. Thereafter, inquiry might center on the dynamics of communal groups with which these counterparts must interact, whether kinsmen, culture-based, or corporations. Finally, queries might be made as to the behavior certain groups require of their members--in terms of time, services, or even funds--and thus, by inference, what they expect of Westerners with whom those members deal. In short, by researching what local groups expect of foreign colleagues, we may anticipate what they may ask of us.

In some East Asian regions, this may mean researching the quasi-personalized relationships between our local contacts and their firms, ties that can extend considerably beyond the borders of what we normally consider "business." In certain Arab nations, it may prove useful to identify key individuals with access to a palace, which may mean research into the relative position of several leading clans, and thus the obligations placed by each upon their members. In Africa, this researcher once found himself researching the expectations placed upon his foreign counterpart through her relations to a clan, sub-tribe, dini (religious sect), and government department. In each instance, group values impacted on her work, thus eventually on mine.

The ultimate intent of such investigations, of course, is to learn what rules will be expected by the other side, so that we become accepted players in their game. To do that, however, we must be willing to play. In theory, this means mastering their rules. In practice, it is more likely to mean modifying them to the point where we can live with them ourselves.

Does communal custom deem it courteous to bow repeatedly? To visit clan or caste or corporate gatherings? To constantly host drop-in members of a local inner circle? To share drinking gourds or group intoxication? How, in practice, are we to cope with foreign expectations that we do not share?

This research suggests that advance knowledge of the communal values that underly these actions would facilitate adjustment to them, ideally, in ways appropriate to both the local culture and ourselves. Perhaps some form of thoughtful, pre-determined adaptation, whether total, partial, or symbolic, may even help transform our local status from that of "outside man" to member of a foreign colleague's inner circle. Surely, success in other cultures is based not just on triumphs of technology but prudent human interactions, with individuals and within groups, to ensure both intercultural and commercial understanding.

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MARKETING IN THE ISLAMIC CONTEXT

Mahmud S. Hashmi
Assistant Professor
Youngstown State University

MARKETING IN THE ISLAMIC CONTEXT

Introduction

Doing business across national boundaries requires interaction with people, their institutions and organizations nurtured in different cultural environments. Values that are important to one group of people may mean little to another. Typical U.S. attitudes and perceptions of symbols, objects, artifacts, and forms of communication may be at variance with the attitudes and perceptions that other people have of these same things. More than any other function of a business, marketing is the most susceptible to cultural error, since marketing by definition requires contact with the people of the country concerned. To be successful in their relationships overseas, international marketers must be students of culture. They must not only obtain factual knowledge but also become culturally sensitive.

Although there are as many definitions of culture as there are anthropologists, most professionals view culture as being the sum total of beliefs, rituals, morality, institutions and artifacts that characterize human population. In other words, culture consists of learned pattern of behavior common to members of a given society - a unique life style of a particular group of people which is transmitted from one generation to another. One such group of people, with inherent commonalities in their traits, behavior and dispositions, are the followers of Islam. We must understand that Islam is not only a religion but a detailed way of life and muslims are not free to alter their tradition just because times have changed; "the messenger of God was the last of prophets, of whom Jesus was one, and the revelations he received were final and complete."

A major monotheistic religion; the population of the Islamic world is approaching one billion. As can be seen from Table 1, Islam is the dominant religion in at least thirty countries and is also the second largest religion of western Europe. Significant Islamic populations are found world wide including such places as India, 80 million; the Soviet Union, 46 million; and China, 15 million. The strength of Islam in many markets (see Table 1) is such as to be critical to the success of many products and communications. If the marketing practices are in harmony with Islamic principles, the harmony will enhance the market acceptance and use of the product in the Islamic world.

Table 1
Muslim Polities

Afghanistan
Algeria
Bangladesh
Bahrain
Brunei
Chad
Djibouti
Egypt
Gambia
Indonesia
Iran
Iraq
Jordan
Libya
Malasyia
Mauritania
Morocco
Niger
Oman
Pakistan
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
Somalia
Sudan
Syria
Tunisia
Turkey
UAE
Yemen (South)
(North)

Source: Britannica Book of the Year: World Data, Encyclopedia Britannica Inc., 1986; and Muslim Peoples: A World Ethnographic Survey, Greenwood Press, 1984.

The Islamic Religion

Some remarks about the Islamic religion may serve as background to the subject under discussion.

Islam was first pronounced through the prophet Muhammed (peace be upon him) in Mecca in 610 A.D. For the next twelve years, the prophet (p.b.u.h.) had to struggle against the polytheist inhabitants of that town who rejected his egalitarian teachings as vigorously as they did his monotheistic beliefs. He had to flee Mecca for Medina in A.D. 622 (the start of the muslim era). In Medina, the first community of Islam, the Islamic city-state was established with the prophet (p.b.u.h.) himself as its temporal head. With the basic ideology of Islam well entrenched, legislative guidance developed, aiming at the best possible results in all spheres of life, including the social, economic and political domains. At the death of the prophet (p.b.u.h.) in 632, the Holy Book of Islam, the Quran, had been completely revealed. It incorporates the basic guidance of Islam and is believed to be God's own word. Preserved in the hearts of thousands of the prophet's (p.b.u.h.) disciples and also recorded in writing during his lifetime, the Quran was duplicated for wide distribution. As a source of Islamic guidance, the Quran was supplemented by the Sunna (way), the reported words and actions of the Prophet (p.b.u.h.), which run into tens of thousands of records, known as hadiths (traditions).

As the Islamic state expanded and incorporated most of the territories then known, muslim leadership was confronted with innumerable problems. As a result, the Islamic legal system emerged, known as Fiqh or Sharia, based primarily on the Quran and the hadith records. Muslim jurists sought to answer every conceivable question and organized their findings into several categories--dealing first with the details of the ritual duties and then with all types of human interactions, including what may be regarded as commercial law, personal law and criminal law. If an answer could not be found in the Quran or Sunna, resort was made to the principle of analogy. The consensus of the first generation of muslims on any matter was recognized as a fourth authority.

Islam is divided between Sunnis and Shiites. Their differences arose out of disagreement over the rightful succession to Muhammed's (p.b.u.h) authority, relatives or disciples. Shia muslims look back to Ali, son-in-law of the prophet (p.u.b.h.) and the first male muslim who should have been the first caliph. He, in fact, became the fourth, was rapidly murdered, and the caliphate passed into other hands. Ever since then, there has been ill feeling and occasional violence between the two groups. With stronger allegiance to religious leaders such as Khomeini of Iran, Shiites account for only about ten percent of all muslims and are the dominant group in only two countries, Iraq and Iran.

We must understand that Islamic guidance permeates all aspects of human life and all muslims, regardless of their particular persuasion or degree of adherence, share the dominant tenants of the faith. The following discussion coorelates specific Islamic beliefs with marketing implications.

TENANTS OF THE ISLAMIC FAITH

Shahada or Profession of Faith - Oneness of God

The profession of faith: There is no god but God, (and) Muhammed (peace be upon him) is the prophet of God, is made on all kinds of occasions - at birth, death, in times of peace and battle. There is no time in a muslim's life when this creed is far from his lips or his heart.

Marketing Implications

The Islamic world offers a huge market for standardized products acceptable in Islam. A company which serves one muslim country satisfactorily can build a strong brand and company loyalty throughout the Islamic world. Strong brand loyalties will create opportunities for brand extension strategies, saving the manufacturer the high cost of promoting new names in the market. Attention should be paid to finding a good brand name. It should not be offensive, obscene or negative sounding. Easy to recognize and remember, it should be adaptable to packaging or labelling requirements and to any advertising medium. It should be pronounceable in all languages and be available for use. Standardized mass media techniques can be used with unity in advertising copy, layout and the central theme. Strict moral guidelines govern advertising. Alcohol and pork are forbidden in Islam, hence they cannot be advertised. In the case of pork, for example, this ban extends to images of pigs such as stuffed toys and piggy banks. Human nudity is forbidden in ads, as are pictures of anything sacred.

Salat or Worship

Islam has prescribed five periods of daily prayer-before sunrise, at noon, in midafternoon, in the evening and at night. The ritual prayers are in Arabic. (The Quran 20:130; 17:78-79)

A believer may say his prayers in public or private as long as he faces Mecca and the Kabah. (The Quran 2:144)

It is, however, thought desirable that he makes his way to a nearby mosque for prayers--if that is at all possible. Particularly important is the congregational prayer at noon on Fridays, where attendance is incumbent on all adult males.

The call to prayer-'Azan' is chanted in Arabic. The call always includes the

Shahada in a declaration such as this: "God is great, God is great. Come to prayer, come to prayer. Come to prosperity, Come to prosperity. God is great, God is great. There is no god but God." At dawn, the call also reminds muslims that prayer is better than sleep.

A call to prayers creates situations that may strike newcomers to the Islamic world as incongruous but they are taken for granted by the participants. In Cairo, the policeman who stands guard at the rear door of the Central Bank drops to the grimmy sidewalk to worship at the appointed hour, leaving the door unwatched. The place of prayer should be clean, so he uses a battered piece of cardboard as a mat over the pavement.

The Quran requires that the worshipper be clean in body as well as soul when praying. Ablution-'wadu' is prescribed. (The Quran 5:7)

Marketing Implications

Productivity targets might be revised downward because of the prayer breaks-affecting the scheduled delivery dates. On the weekdays, take into account the prayer timings when planning sales calls to prospects. Since Friday is not ordained as a day of rest, it is not a religious requirement that Friday be a work holiday and some privately owned retail outlets are kept open. However, the business activity comes to a stand still at the time of the Friday prayers. On Fridays, no official business transactions are conducted in most of the muslim countries as Friday is generally observed as the weekly official holiday.

The routes leading to the mosques should be used to develop outdoor media. It is a religious duty to be bodily clean and the use of scents was practiced by the prophet (p.b.u.h). Hygiene-related 'halal' products offer a big market with muslims.

Saum or Fasting

There are twenty nine or thirty days of daylight fasting during the month of Ramadan, the month when the Quran was laid down. Ramadan is the ninth month of the muslim calendar. The fast is esteemed as inculcating both self-control and sympathy with the poor and destitute. All muslims, in good health and not engaged on a journey, are required to refrain from eating, drinking, smoking and sexual intercourse from dawn to sunset. Not fasting is regarded as an act of defiance of the communal moral code; it is an assertion of atheism. (The Quran 2:183-185, 187).

The muslim world celebrates the completion of the month of fasting with the Islamic Festival of Eid-ul-Fiter. On this day, in addition to five daily prayers, Eid prayers are offered in mid morning in a large communal ground, and it is a public holiday in all the muslim countries.

Marketing Implications

Fasting affects the pattern of life in the entire muslim countries. Public life, commerce and government slow to a crawl because the rigors of the fast result in curtailed work hours. Production targets and delivery dates are adversely affected. Business calls from overseas should be avoided in this month. To build good will send Eid greeting cards to the patrons and major prospects. Offer Eid greetings in the media-newspapers, commercial radios and wherever permitted on the television as a means of image building.

Zakat-Alms Giving

Both legal alms, 2.5 percent annually on income and saving, and free will gifts, sadaqats, are enjoined on muslims. Unlike modern taxation, zakat is a flat rate and does not rise exuberantly on an ascending scale. Thus it does not discourage working for greater gain, nor is it exposed to evasive or dishonest measures. Equity can be achieved by encouraging voluntary charities, Sadaqat, which assure seven hundredfold rewards with God. (The Quran 2:43, 110, 177, 227)

Marketing Implications

Corporate donations should be given for charity. Build hospitals, schools, orphanages. Provide grants/scholarships for education to students from poor families. Emphasize company's charitable acts through institutional advertising to build good will.

Haj - Pilgrimage to Mecca

Every adult muslim who can afford it is required to undertake a pilgrimage to the holy mosque in Mecca - the city where the revelations which, make up the Quran began. The shrine was constructed by apostles Abraham and his son Ismail. The pilgrimage occurs during the twelth month of the muslim lunar calender. Upon his return, the pilgrim, or the Haji as he is called, gains personal prestige in the home community. The major impact of the pilgrimage is the pilgrim's strengthened sense of international brotherhood and solidarity.

Eid-ul-Adha commemorates the sacrificial ritual performed by the apostle Abraham as commanded by God. In all Islamic countries millions of animals are slaughtered and distributed to the needy. This festival also marks the culmination of the Haj ceremonies and is a public holiday. (The Quran 2:158, 196-203 and 3:97)

Marketing Implications

Financial assistance, grants and other charitable acts to the needy will foster a caring image of the company in the community. Before traveling to the Islamic world for a sales call, make sure that the prospect/contact/customer is not away for pilgrimage. On behalf of the company, offer Haj greetings to all the patrons in the print media, commercial radios and on TV, to build good will with them and their home communities.

Riba or Usury

The idea underlying the prohibition of usury is that all believers are brothers and therefore should help one another financially as well as in other ways. Condemnation of usury is in keeping with the Islamic prohibition of earning without effort or risk and with the cooperative spirit it promotes. (The Quran 2:275; 3:130)

The result of forbidding usury is that a debtor cannot make his situation worse by postponing repayment: the debt cannot increase by the accumulation of interest, yet a debt is to be viewed as a serious matter. Acording to the Islamic law the debts of the deceased should be quickly settled by the mourners, preferably before his burial.

In present day muslim countries the situation regarding usury varies from place to place. There are no religious restrictions on the financial and commercial institutions in Turkey, Indonesia and Malaysia. In Saudi Arabia the law specifically forbids the charging of interest. In Pakistan and Iran great efforts have been made to introduce Islamic banking. In compliance with the Quranic principle a bank, instead of charging interest takes a share in the equity of the project.

Marketing Implications

Payments in cash should be emphasized and the use of credit as a marketing tool should be avoided. Encourage price discounts for cash payments. Increase price concessions to regular customers. Raise prices for layaway options or on installments instead of conducting interest transactions. Justification for higher prices includes the increased inventory, security and handling costs.

Family Obligations

In the Islamic world an individual is responsible to the family for social behavior, and the family is responsible to the society for the behavior of the individual. The reputation of an individual man or woman reflects upon the family and about a third of the Quran is devoted to family matters and relationships. Marriage between two individuals represents union of two families and the extended family is as important as the family unit.

(A) Respect for elders/parents

In Islam there is a profound respect for knowledge and experience. Since these qualities are normally associated with age, respect for one's elders in the Islamic world is deeply ingrained. A sense of hierarchy is particularly strong in the family. A young person will automatically rise to his feet when an older relative comes into the room. (The Quran 17:23-34)

(B) Relationships outside wedlocks

"And who guard their modesty-save from their wives that their right hands possess, for then they are not blameworthy." (The Quran 23:5-6)

(C) Men's modesty

"Tell the believing men to lower their gaze and be modest. That is purer for them. Lo! Allah is aware of what they do." (The Ouran 24:30)

(D) Women's modesty and seclusion

"And tell the believing women to lower their gaze and be modest, and to display of their adornment apparent, and to draw their veils over their bossoms, and not to reveal their adornment save to their own husbands...". (The Quran 24:31)

The seclusion and veiling of women is a subject peppered with ambiguities and seclusion of women sometimes takes on an extreme form, especially in the Arabian Peninsula. Interpretations differ as to the meaning of "drawing their veils over their bosoms." In Saudi Arabia women cover their faces and heads. In Iran and increasingly in Pakistan women wear chador, an over garment, whereby the face is uncovered but the forehead and hair are not shown. Thus, various customes have been established and the present day situation varies from place to place.

Marketing Implications

Women and men shop with their husbands or wives, or in small groups of people of the same sex. This would be a consideration in marketing, where, for instance, an image of peer approval might be more appropriate than one of self-indulgence. The importance of elders in the family as opinion leaders should not be under estimated. Because of the extended family system word of mouth communication and customer referrals are very critical.

Do not praise your host's wife, daughters or offer gifts to them in the Islamic world. The family dealings unlike business dealings fall under private domain.

Hiring men for conducting, face to face, interviews with women, or through phone calls, or mailing questionnaires addressed to women for collecting market research data are very inappropriate. Access to female consumers is often possible only through women working as selling agents who use such tools as, home demonstrations at women's social gatherings and women's specialty shops. Promote your products in the women's magazines for the literate audience but avoid human nudity in ads as that is regared highly offensive.

Supremacy of Human Life and Environmentalism

Compared to other forms of life, human life is of supreme importance. Nature is the sustenance of man and he has been commanded to make the best use of God's created resources without waste and destruction.

Muslims are allowed to slaughter animals for food, but have been prohibited from killing them for fun or sport. And when an animal is slaughtered, it should be done with the least possible degree of pain. The name of the Life Giver is besought before slaughter, as a reminder that life must not be taken away thoughtlessly but for the purpose of good. (The Quran 2:30; 5:5; 6:141, 165; 7:31; 45:12-13)

Marketing Implications

Do not give human names to animals, particularly to dogs. According to Islamic belief, food, vessels and clothes which have come in contact with dogs become impure. The sale of pet food in the Islamic world is less important.

At present no environmental movements exist in the Islamic world but industries should anticipate strict enforcement of environmental and anti-pollution regulations; requiring business to invest in ant-pollution devices, eliminating dangerous pollutants from the environment and introducing safe substitutes. Socially conscious companies will find an easy acceptance in the community.

Use floral designs, sceneries and artwork in advertising as representation of aesthetic values. In institutional advertising a company should focus on its attempts and achievements in improving the quality of the living environment. Advocacy advertising should be used to educate consumers to develop ways to reduce litter and the marring of the landscape.

Mannerism and Food

(A) Salam Alekum

> "And you are greeted with a greeting, greet with a fairer than it, or return it; surely God keeps a watchful count on everything". (The Quran 4:86)

Salam alekum (peace be on you) is the traditional Islamic greeting and the reply is: Wa alekum Salam (and on you be peace). This greeting is universally used between strangers, friends and relations at all times of the day. According to the Quran Salam alekum is the greeting given to the blessed on entering paradise. Shaking hands is encouraged by tradition, and is founded upon the express example of the prophet (p.b.u.h) himself.

(B) Food

Eating the meat products of swine, wild animals with claws, all birds of prey, dead meat, reptiles, worms and that which has not had its throat cut whilst still alive (except fish) is forbidden. Muslims are also prohibited from touching all sorts of intoxicants. (The Quran 2:172-173, 219; 5:4-5,93-94)

Marketing Implications

The executives of the international firms, who are, outsiders to the Islamic community, should show sensitivity to the Islamic customs when visiting muslim countries. For instance, they should use the right hand for greeting and eating food. The use of the left hand for passing or accepting anything should be avoided. It is offensive to present the soles of one's feet toward a person in the company or sleeping with legs facing Mecca. Do not use Quranic quotations, prophet's (p.b.u.h.) name, God's names or pictures of Islamic shrines on packages.

At the death of an important customer/business contact company condolences should be sent to the bereaved family through the print media. A personal visit by the company representative to the bereaved family will be highly appreciated. These gestures will have a profound effect on the company's image in the community and may accelerate a new product acceptance and consumption. On such visits it should be borne in mind that mourners sit on the ground to show respect to the deceased.

The Eid festivals in the Islamic world are public holidays and occasions of social gatherings and family reunions. They provide opportunities for the sale of new shoes, clothing, sweets and food items. Consumers should be served with Islam-oriented products such as non-alcoholic drinks 'halal' or kosher meat packages. Food products should use vegetable or beef shortening and the ingredients on packages should be clearly specified.

Commercial Transactions - Just Dealings.

Islam looks with favor upon commercial activity and has nothing to say against inequality in terms of wealth and possessions. The Islamic economic framework is delineated by the call to uphold the Islamic virtues of truth, honesty in dealings, respect for the rights of others, pursuit of moderation, sacrifice and hard work. These virtues should guide a muslim in his economic struggle through the processes of acquisition, production, distribution and consumption. In other words, the spiritual aspirations of the individual must harmonize with his material endeavors. Pledges, trusts, and terms concluded with other parties must be kept. Writing down the terms of agreements is strongly recommended. The contracting parties should be responsible and of sound mind; the commodity should be clearly specified, truly owned by the seller and accessible and deliverable; and the price also has to be made specific. The terms of the contract should convey the mutual accpetance by both parties and the wording of the written contract should be categorical and unambiguous to avoid social tension or litigations. (The Quran 2:282; 5:10; 7:33; 17:35; 83:1-4)

Marketing Implications

Avoid exaggerated claims in advertising. A worker, manufacturer or an administrator should exert the utmost effort to make his product as perfect as possible. It is related that the prophet (p.b.u.h.) said:* "God likes to see any one of you, when you do something, to make it as perfect as you possibly can." This hadith implies the use of less formal product warranties as a marketing tool.

Writing down the contracts between the parties make the transfer of goods safe; they also ensure the absence of vagueness or misunderstanding--whether the transaction is a contract of sale, partnership, employment or anything else.

However, there is a very strong tradition for conducting business and concluding agreements on a verbal basis and such agreements are as binding as any other kind. Any attempt by one of the parties to modify an aspect of the agreement is viewed as dishonorable and unbusinesslike.

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*Suyuti, al-Jami al-saghir Beirut, 1970, Vol. 2, P144 Hadith no. 1876.

Conclusion

The word for religion in the Quranic tongue is "din", a term which connotes a whole way of life. Islamic religion is not merely a private matter, nor does it touch only the periphery of individual lives; it is both private and public, and permeates the whole fabric of the society. Obviously, marketing strategy is a function of buyer characteristics. Such demands that the international marketers have to conform their marketing practices with the Islamic principles if they want to be effective in the Islamic world. The purpose of this article was to present a few of the possible marketing decisions that international marketers may make when considering the influence of Islamic culture.

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"The Evaluation of Internship Experiences Within Multinational Business and Foreign Language Programs: Methodology and Instrumentation"

By

Barney T. Raffield, III
Associate Professor of Marketing
Department of Marketing
Bryant College
Smithfield, Rhode Island

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THE EVALUATION OF INTERNSHIP EXPERIENCES WITHIN MULTINATIONAL BUSINESS AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROGRAMS: METHODOLOGY AND INSTRUMENTATION

Barney T. Raffield, III, Ph.D.

Internship experiences are becoming an increasingly more critical component of academically sound multinational business and foreign language programs. Faculty in such programs are generally highly competent classroom teachers but lack the skills and training necessary for effective internship evaluation. The purpose of this paper is to provide practical guidelines by which multinational business and foreign language internships can be evaluated.

The paper focuses specifically on the following topics: fundamental principles for the evaluation of internship experiences, how to begin to measure intern effectiveness, how the internship supervisor should initiate the evaluation program, and how to select criteria for the measurement of intern effectiveness. Each of these areas is treated in detail in order to provide a well-balanced, skills-building approach to multinational business and foreign language internship evaluation.

Fundamental Principles for the Evaluation of Internship Experiences

As soon as posible after an intern begins his/her internship experience, the internship supervisor should carefully monitor the intern's progress on a continuing basis. Without such evaluation, the supervisor cannot ascertain whether or not the internship is truly providing a learning experience for the student, according to the original plan of what the internship was to achieve (see Raffield, 1985); or whether it is merely providing the host organization with a relatively inexpensive, or perhaps even gratis, form of semi-professional assistance.

Planning and evaluation, then, are interrelated activities. Evaluation logically follows planning, the implementation of the plan, and the supervision of the implementation. Planning indicates what is to be accomplished, implementation sets the plan into motion, supervision places a control on the implementation of the plan, and evaluation compares the results of the plan with its original goals. Once the evaluation has been completed and discussed fully between the supervisor and the intern, with input from both parties, any necessary corrections or adjustments can be made in the original learning goals of the internship as well as in the strategies and techniques employed in the implementation of the internship, and the quality and style of supervision utilized to monitor the day-to-day activities involved in the internship. In this way, the managerial functions of planning, implementing, supervising, and evaluating, are linked in a circular relationship. Although the planning function initiates the internship experience, the evaluation of the internship generally recycles an even better planned internship, rather than serving as an ending to the original experience.

How to Begin to Measure Intern Effectiveness

An "internship audit," adapted from the concept of a "marketing audit,"is the essential element of a total evaluation program. An audit implies a review and an evaluation of some activity. The "internship audit" is a systematic, comprehensive, periodic review and evaluation of the entire internship experience--its goals, strategies, tactics, performance, and supervision (Schuchman, 1959; Oxenfeldt, 1959).

A complete audit is obviously an extensive and arduous project, but the rewards from an "internship audit," can be great indeed. Internship supervisors can identify an intern's problems; aand by reviewing the strategies and tactics used in implementing the learning goals of the internship, the supervisor can keep abreast of both the type and quality of learning which the internship is providing to the intern. Intern achievements can also be analyzed, so that successful strategies and tactics and appropriate learning goals can be identified for future use. On the other hand, an "internship audit" can spot lack of coordination in the internship program, outdated strategies and tactics, or unrealistic learning goals. The audit allows the internship supervisor to place responsibility correctly for good or poor performance. Furthermore, an audit should anticipate future situations which are likely to occur and provide strategic ideas as to how these situations should be handled by both the intern and the supervisor. It is intended for "prognosis" as well as "diagnosis." It is the practice of preventive as well as curative internship medicine (Schuchman, 1959).

Before a program for measuring and improving intern effectiveness can get underway, there must be a general agreement among all parties directly involved in the internship experience that the foremost function of internship evaluation is the improvement of the content and overall quality of the learning which takes place. This major function clearly necessitates certain subsidiary functions (Barr, Burton, and Brueckner, 1938).

1. One cannot evaluate except in terms of an accepted philosophy, an accepted and understood statement of aims among all parties involved in the internship experience. The cooperative formulation of this

statement is a function of internship evaluation. Common purposes, goals, and standards are thus established.

2. A process has to be developed for carrying on an evaluation program which is aimed at the accurate measurement of the intern's mastery of pre-planned learning objectives.
3. All personnel directly involved in the internship experience (the student intern, the supervising faculty member and the internship supervisor) must be brought together to enable a thorough and meaningful evaluation of the total learning process. The evaluation process should be of such nature as to protect and stimulate the individuality and creativity of all persons included. Human relations are far more important than the mechanical efficiency of any process.
4. A theory and practice of evaluation must be developed which are consistent with the accepted goals and philosophy of the internship experience.

How the Faculty Supervisor Should Initiate the Evaluation Program

The faculty supervisor should be able to identify good and poor interns and internship experiences, and also be able to assist interns in making their own evaluation of their internship program. He/She should be able to make positive recommendations for improvement, or to enlist the aid of those who can be of help. Through observation and participation, the supervising faculty member should keep in close touch with internship activities in an effort to provide the best possible assistance to each intern.

There are various types of intern appraisal forms. Some of these forms are based on the supervising faculty's expectations which list, for the most part, desirable qualities for an intern to possess and to demonstrate during the course of the internship. Rating scales, observation forms, predictive appraisals of intern-training programs, studies of intern opinions, and other diagnostic tests can be utilized. All of these devices provide "subjective measurement" of no more than a sample portion of total performance.

An evaluation procedure should be used "with" interns, rather than "on" interns. Evaluation should be viewed as a cooperative attempt to solve a professional problem. Discussion of the items on the evaluation forms to be used, with both the intern and the internship supervisor, should take place prior to the beginning of the internship in an effort to stimulate the achievement of the learning goals planned for a particular internship experience. An evaluative scale could be used very effectively by interns for self-evaluation and for subsequent conferences with the supervising faculty member. Interns should be encouraged to employ whatever self-appraisal techniques are suitable.

If interns feel that the results of the evaluation will be used against them, they will typically be unwilling to reveal weaknesses and problems which they encounter during the course of the internship. However, they will generally be eager to participate in evaluations which tend to strengthen their own self-esteem and professional development.

One of the first steps in intern appraisal is for all of the parties directly involved in the internship to discuss and to agree jointly on the criteria to be used in intern evaluations. In fact, cooperative planning and joint effort hold the key to any successful evaluation program. Evaluation should always be purposeful. Too often it is considered as an end in itself. True evaluation is for improvement and growth through the analysis of the intern's strengths and weaknesses; and, thus, should be the basis for guidance and constructive criticism.

For a successful evaluation program, the faculty supervisor, in concert with the on-the-job internship supervisor, must accept the responsibility for acquainting the intern with what is expected of him/her, and what appraisal techniques will be utilized. Interns must think in terms of the constructive concept of evaluation and consider it as a source of help. Both the faculty supervisor and the on-the-job supervisor must avoid giving the impression that the evaluation is the final verdict on the intern's work and worth.

Intern evaluation should be continuous rather than periodic. It should be accompanied by, and followed with, helpful supervision. No matter how many secondary reasons there may be to do intern evaluations, the most primary purpose is to improve the content and quality of the intern's learning experience.

How to Select Criteria for Measuring Intern Effectiveness

Selecting criteria for the measurement of intern effectiveness is probably the most difficult and most important task in the development of the appraisal program. A well-rounded program might include such items as intern behavior and relationships with others involved in the internship experience, intern growth, intern-supervisor (faculty supervisor and on-the job supervisor) relationships, and strategic and tactical techniques for meeting the learning goals of the internship.

According to Mager (1962), the intern and the internship experience should be evaluated in terms of evidence that the intern has concerning the extent to which the learning objectives established jointly by all the parties involved in the preparation of the learning agreement (see Raffield, 1985) have been realized. Important guidelines in this procedure involve the following:

1. Identify the learning outcomes that the evaluator is seeking by name; he/she should specify the type of knowledge that will be accepted as evidence that the intern has achieved the learning objectives set forth for the internship.
2. Attempt to define the desired learning outcomes more precisely by describing the important conditions under which the acquired knowledge will be demonstrated.
3. Specify the criteria of acceptable performance by describing how well the intern must perform to be considered as having mastered the task at hand, and as having succeeded in reaching the desired learning objective.

Criteria for evaluation, then, must clearly communicate and be related to intended educational outcomes; and as the statements are written, they must describe all intended results. Statements as to evaluative criteria are useful only to the extent that they specify what the intern must be able "to do" or "perform" when demonstrating his/her mastery of the learning objectives of the internship.

"Appraisal of learning outcomes," then, is perhaps a more accurate description of how the evaluating supervisor should operate than is "appraisal of intern effectiveness." Appraisal is not limited to the application of a single test of value to one, simple predetermined criterion. It is a comprehensive process. Characteristics of appraisal are as follows:

1. It is an integral, complex part of education.
2. Intern and internship effectiveness are determined best by appraisal of intern growth as related to the desired learning goals in individual situations.
3. The total intern personality and all aspects of individual development and demonstration of acquired skills are evaluated.
4. Many tools and procedures, and many types of evidence are utilized in the evaluative process.
5. Evaluation means not only appraising, judging, and diagnosing; but it also means determination as to whether the results are adequate and desirable.
6. The evaluation process is not completed by the intern or the faculty supervisor alone; cooperative efforts by all directly involved participants are indicated.

Conclusion

Clearly, the evaluation process for any internship experience--whether in the form of a complete "internship audit," or only an appraisal of individual components of a particular internship experience--is essentially a three-stage task. In the evaluative process, a supervisor's job is as follows:

1. Find out "what" happened--get the facts; compare actual results with predetermined goals to determine where, if at all, they differ.
2. Find out "why" it happened--determine what specific factorsin the internship experience accounted for the results.
3. Decide "what to do" about it--plan for the next such type internship experience so as to improve on unsatisfactory performance and to capitalize on things that were done well.

Although evaluation is an arduous and time-consuming process, often fraught with feelings of frustration on the part of the internship evaluators and feelings of anxiety on the part of the intern, it is the only strong benchmark and diagnostic tool that seems able to monitor the current academic soundness of internship experiences within multinational business and foreign language programs. Doubtlessly, the content, substance, style, and quality of the evaluative process for internship experiences will improve and become more refined as colleges and universities, in cooperation with companies both in the United States and abroad, create such curricular opportunities for students interested in multinational business careers which are increasingly requiring fluent foreign language speaking and writing abilities.

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"Marketing Across Cultures: Learning from U.S. Corporate Blunders

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Barney T. Raffield, III, Ph.D.
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MARKETING ACROSS CULTURES: LEARNING FROM U.S. CORPORATE BLUNDERS

Barney T. Raffield, III, Ph.D.

International divisions and multinational operations are all but standard now for the majority of U.S. corporations. Through the early years of U.S. involvement in international trade, many serious mistakes were made by American companies in their approach to and treatment of business and consumer communities overseas. These mistakes seemed to occur largely because of U.S. provincialism and ignorance of the importance of the language, culture, and values, of the countries in which American firms wished to transact business. The consequences of such errors were often losses of great amounts of both money and international goodwill.

This paper specifically focuses on a variety of mistakes which U.S. corporations have made in international trade with respect to language, culture, and values. The primary purposes of the manuscript are to review a number of the mistakes which were made and to examine what U.S. corporations can and should be doing toward becoming more effective in the global marketing of American goods and services.

Examples of U.S. Corporate Blunders in Global Marketing Efforts

Language Blunders

Many U.S. corporations have had difficulty crossing the language barrier, with results ranging from mild embarrassment to outright failure. Seemingly harmless brand names and advertising phrases can take on unintended or hidden meanings when translated into other languages, but such errors can make a marketer look somewhat like a buffoon to foreign consumers. The following are some actual examples of language and translation errors made by U.S. corporations in overseas markets (Ricks, 1983).

When Coca-Cola first marketed Coke in China during the 1920s, it developed a group of Chinese characters which, when pronounced, sounded like the product name. Unfortunately, the literal translation of the characters was "bite the wax tadpole." Today, the characters on Chinese Coke bottles translate as "happiness in the mouth."

Several U.S. automobile manufacturers have had similar problems when their brand names crashed into the language barrier. Chevrolet's Nova translated into Spanish as **no va**--"It doesn't go." Subsequently, General Motors changed the name to Caribe, and sales increased. General Motors "Body by Fisher" slogan became "Corpse by Fisher" when translated into Japanese. Ford introduced its Fiera truck to a variety of Spanish-speaking countries only to learn that the name means "ugly old woman" in Spanish. Adding even more to this first mistake, Ford introduced its Comet automobile in Mexico as the Caliente, a Mexican slang term for "streetwalker." On the other hand, Rolls Royce avoided the name Silver Mist in German markets, where "mist" means "manure." Sunbeam, more unfortunately, entered the German market with its Mist-Stick hair-curling iron; and, as should have been expected, found that German women had little use or desire for a "manure wand."

One well-intentioned American corporation introduced its shampoo product to the Brazilian market under the name of Evitol, which unhappily for that company translates as "dandruff contraceptive" in Portuguese. Another American company had trouble in marketing Pet evaporated milk in French-speaking countries, where the word "pet" means, among other things, "to break wind."

Many of these language and translation errors were corrected quickly enough to cause little more than a temporary embarrassment and loss of sales and profits for U.S. corporations. However, many others were not caught and amended so quickly, and later led to many unforseen consequences involving more long-term loss of sales, profits, market credibility, and international goodwill. Today, the multinational company must carefully screen its brand names and advertising messages to guard against those which might damage sales, make the U.S. firm look silly, or offend potential customers in specific international markets.

Culture and Values Blunders

International marketers need to be aware of each market's cultural environment, in that culture generally refers to people sharing a distinctive heritage. This heritage teaches standards, language, lifestyles, and goals. A culture is inculcated, and very much like consumer attitudes, is not easily changed. Almost every country in the world has a different culture, and continental differences may exist as well. A U.S. firm unfamiliar with or insensitive to a foreign culture may try to market products and services that are unacceptable to or misunderstood by that culture (Evans and Berman, 1985).

The following represents a collection of cultural errors that American companies have made in overseas markets during the past few decades (Ricks, 1983; Helming, 1982; Kotler, 1986; and Klein, 1983). In Japan, photograph frames aimed at the office market have done poorly because photographs of a person's family are not kept on people's desks, which are viewed only as places of work. The Japanese place family photographs in albums and show them only to friends. Pepsodent was unsuccessful in Southeast Asia because it promised white teeth to a culture where black or yellow teeth are symbols of prestige. In Quebec, a canned fish manufacturer tried to promote a product by showing a woman dressed in shorts, golfing with her husband, and planning to serve the canned fish for dinner; all these activities violated local cultural norms.

Additionally, Maxwell House advertised itself as a "great American coffee" in the Federal Republic of Germany, only to learn that West Germans have little respect for American coffee. In Brazil, Gerber Foods could not convince mothers that commercial baby food was a good alternative to food the mothers made themselves. Campbell Soup, also in Brazil, lost over 8 million dollars by failing to discover that the typical housewife in the subtropical areas of Brazil felt that they were failing to fulfill their roles as homemakers by not serving their families a soup that they had made themselves. Finally, African men were upset by an American firm's African-run commercial for a men's deodorant which showed a happy male being chased by beautiful women. The unfortunate result was that the African men felt that using the deodorant would make them weak and susceptible to being overrun by women.

In regard to the examples cited above, the errors wre often committed as a result of a lack of an awareness of foreign cultures that is rooted in inadequate data (Evans and Berman, 1985). In a number of cases the U.S. firm was at fault because it operated out of a domestic home office and received very little, if any, foreign input. In other cases, such as marketing in third-world countries, information has been limited due to a low level of population data (both demographic and psychographic), a severely limited expertise in marketing research strategies and techniques, and a reluctance on the part of the foreign nationals to participate openly and freely in market surveys. In some instances, mail and telephone service are poor, limiting the ability of marketing researchers to determine the cultural taboos of certain markets; to understand the hidden meanings of specific brand names, slogans, and trademarks in specific international markets; to ascertain the typical or average rate of product or service consumption over time; and to analyze and evaluate the reasons for particular purchases in various international markets.

What Have U.S. Corporations Learned From Their Overseas Marketing Blunders?

Exactly what have U.S. corporations learned about languages and cultures from the rather embarrassing, not to mention frequently extraordinarily expensive, global marketing mistakes cited above. Greater and more sensitive cultural awareness, to include both primary and more subtle language differences, can be vastly improved in American firms through the development of a "master plan" through which the company will create an appropriate and effective marketing mix for each of the products and services which it wishes to market in a particular foreign country. Cultural awareness can be improved by employing foreign personnel in key positions, hiring foreign marketing research specialists, locating company offices in each country of operations, actively studying cultural differences, and being responsive to cultural changes (Evans and Berman, 1985).

The following represent some cultural elements that can influence a company's marketing program overseas, but it must be remembered that the importance of specific elements in marketing varies from country to country (Stanton and Futrell, 1987).

Family. In some countries, the family is an extremely close-knit unit; whereas, in other nations the family members generally act more independently. Each of these two types of situations requires a different type of promotion, and perhaps even different types of products.

Educational systems. The educational system affects the literacy rate, which, in turn, influences advertising, branding, and labeling. The brand may become all-important if potential customers cannot read and must depend on recognizing the article by the picture on the label.

Language differences. Language differences, as can be clearly seen above, also pose problems. Even some English words have different meanings in Great Britain, Australia, and the United States.

Religion. Religion is a major influence on value systems and behavioral patterns.

Specialists in international marketing research, whether domestic Americans or foreign nationals, can provide the U.S. firm with invaluable data on multinational differences in consumers throughout the world. For example, the following marketing problems can be easily created due to global cultural differences (Farrard, 1985; Business Week, 1976).

Body language. Standing with your hands on your hips is a gesture of defiance in Indonesia. Carrying on a conversation with your hands in your pockets makes a poor impression in France, Belgium, Finland, and Sweden. When you shake your head from side to side, that means "yes" in Bulgaria and Sri Lanka. Crossing your legs to expose the sole of your shoe is really taboo in Muslim countries. In fact, to call a person a "shoe" is a deep insult.

Finally, waving goodbye to someone in Korea is taken to mean that you are beckoning them.

Physical contact. Patting a child on the head is a grave offense in Thailand or Singapore, since the head is considered to be sacred. In an Oriental culture, touching another person is considered to be an invasion of privacy; while in southern European countries and in Arabic countries, it is interpreted as a sign of warmth and friendship.

Promptness. One should be on time when invited to dinner in either Denmark or China, but a host in a Latin-American country would be surprised if his/her guest arrived at the appointed hour.

Eating. It is rude to leave anything on one's plate when eating in Norway, Singapore, or Malaysia; while in Egypt, it is rude not to leave something.

Other social customs. In Sweden, nudity and sexual permissiveness are quite all right, but drinking is not. In Spain there is a very negative attitude toward life insurance because by receiving insurance benefits, a wife feels that she is profiting from her husband's death. Retailers in Taiwan embrace the concept of "scrambled merchandising." Here are some product combinations found in small shops: luggage and soap; fresh donuts and playing cards; purses, blanbkets, and toothpaste; and dresses, soap, and table lamps.

Giving of gifts and selection of color. In Brazil, purple is a death color, and scotch is more popular than bourbon. To the English, apparel and soap as gifts are considered too personal; and although white lilies suggest death, other types of flowers are very acceptable. In France, yellow flowers suggest infidelity, and chrysanthemums are strictly for funerals. Cutlery is never given as a gift. In Hong Kong, white is for funerals, but red is popular in all Chinese-speaking cultures. Italians and West Germans feel that red roses are given to one's favorite woman, and handkerchiefs are not generally given as gifts in Italy. To Mexicans, yellow flowers are a symbol of death. In the Soviet Union, knives and forks are a friendship-cutter, as they also are in the Federal Republic of Germany unless the giver requests a coin in payment. in Saudi Arabia, it is wise to give nothing to another person's wife, and one should not give anything alcoholic to anyone. Finally, clocks should not be given as gifts to the Taiwanese because the word for "clock" sounds like the one for "terminate."

Toward the Development of Standardized Strategies for Marketing Across Cultures

It is imperative that U.S. firms learn more effective and more acceptable strategies for use in their global marketing efforts. As can be easily seen in the multitude of examples above, there are major and often contradictory cultural norms and values as one studies various cultures throughout the world. Is it even possible for the American firm which wishes to conduct business abroad to do so efficiently, tactfully, effectively, and quite importantly, profitably? During the last decade, numerous pieces of scholarly research have been conducted in an effort to provide an answer to this vital question. This particular paper will cite the results of two such studies completed by James Engel, Roger Blackwell, and David Kollat; and by Herbert Henzler.

An assessment of a country's culture for marketing purposes involves the analysis of its people's attitudes, motivations, perceptions, and learning processes (Jain, 1987). The following information more specifically summarizes such cultural determinants (Engel, Blackwell, Kollat, 1978).

Determine relevant motivations in the culture. What needs are fulfilled with this product in the minds of members of the culture? How are these needs presently fulfilled? Do members of this culture readily recognize thes needs?

Determine characteristic behavior patterns. What patterns are characteristic of purchasing patterns? What forms of division of labor exist within the family structure? How frequently are products of this type purchased? What size packages are normally purchased? Do any of these characteristic behaviors conflict with the behavior expected for this product? How strongly engrained are the behavior patterns that conflict with those needed for distribution of this product?

Determine what broad cultural values are relevant to this product? Are there strong values about work, morality, religion, family relations, and so on, that relate to this product? Does this product connote attributes that that are in conflict with these cultural values? Can conflicts with values be avoided by changing the product? Are there positive values in this culture with which the product might be identified?

Determine characteristic forms of decision-making. Do members of the culture display a studied approach to decisions concerning innovations, or do they rely more on an impulsive approach? What is the form of the decision process? Upon what information sources do members of the culture rely? Do members of the culture tend to be rigid or flexible in the acceptance of new ideas? What criteria do they use in evaluating alternatives?

Evaluate promotion methods appropriate to the culture. What role does advertising occupy in the culture? What themes, words, or illustrations, are taboo in the culture? What language problems exist in present markets that cannot be translated into this culture? What types of salespeople are accepted by members of the culture? Are such salespeople available?

Determine appropriate institutions for this product in the minds of consumers. What types of retailers and intermediary institutions are available? What services do institutions offer that are expected by the consumer? What alternatives are available for obtaining services needed for the product but not offered existing institutions? How are various types of retailers regarded by consumers? Will changes in the distribution structure be readily accepted?

The questions asked above attempt to relate cultural traits to marketing decisions. For example, simply knowing about the social institutions, religion, and language differences, in a particular country is not enough. The global marketer who attempts to market across cultures must also understand what cultural impact, whether positive, negative, or both, his/her product or service will have on a specific country. Simply looking at an aggregation of individual facts and other specific forms of data, cannot replace the use of a systemic and carefully researched approach to the understanding of the marketing practices and taboos of various markets throughout the world.

In addition to Engel, Blackwell, and Kollat's cross-cultural analysis of consumer behavior detailed above, Henzler (1981) developed some standardized strategies for business firms to utilize in to utilize in their attempts to market across cultures. These strategies are organized according to the phase

One of the greatest assets which U.S. firms already have, and will continue to have, is the international training and knowledge of their employees. It will become even more increasingly important in the years ahead for any company wishing to market across cultures to attract, to motivate, and to retain young men and women specifically trained in the language, culture, politics, and economics of consumer and industrial markets throughout the world. Where then do these firms find such young people for positions in international marketing research, sales, product management, distribution planning, promotional strategy, and consumer relations? The most obvious answer seems to be found in those individuals who have received specialized training in multinational business and foreign language programs. It would be a comforting, but highly dangerous and unwarranted assumption for American business leaders to accept the notion that many such trained professionals currently exist in the United States. They, unfortunately for the United States, seem to be born, trained, and employed in other countries with whom we compete at this time. Very few U.S. colleges and universities currently offer such programs or plan to do so in the near future. It is becoming more abundantly clear as time passes and as the American business practitioner looks to past mistakes in global markets, that financial and placement support for academically and professionally trained individuals in multinational business and foreign languages are sorely and critically necessary to the United States in its quest for maintenance, expansion, and creativity in marketing acrosss cultures.

Table 1

Developing Standard Marketing Strategies

Phase	Developing	Take-off	Mature
Basic Strategy	Test Market Pursue profitable individual projects and/or export activities	Build Base Allocate substantial resources to establish leading position in market	Expand/Round off Operations Allocate resources selectively to develop market niches
Elements of Strategy			
Investment	Minimize (distribution and services)	Invest to expand capacity (relatively long payback)	Expans selectively in R&D, production, and distribution (relatively short payback)
Risk	Avoid	Accept	Limit
Market share	Concentrate on key projects; possibly build position in profitable businesses with local support	Extend base with --New products --New outlets --New applications	Expand/defend
Price	Price high	Aim for price leadership (at both ends)	Back stable market price level
Product	Standard technology, simple products	Aim for wide range, "innovator" role	Full product line in selected areas, products of high technical quality
Costs	Minimum acceptable (especially reduction of guarantee risks	Economies of scale, reduction of fixed costs	Rationalize; optimize resources

Table 1 (continued)

Phase	Developing	Take-off	Mature
Elements of strategy			
Marketing	Selective advertising --With typical high-prestige products --Aiming at decision-makers	Active utilization of selective marketing resources	Selected product advertising
Know-how transfer	Document know-how on reference projects	Use local know-how in --Product technology --Product engineering	Transfer know-how in special product lines; acquire local know-how to round off own base

Source: Taken from Herbert Henzler, "Shaping an International Investment Strategy," The McKinsey Quarterly, Spring, 1981, p. 77.

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MARKETING ACROSS CULTURES: ISSUES, PROBLEMS AND OPPORTUNITIES

By

Dr. Bob Abdrabboh
Professor of Economics
Detroit College of Business
Main Campus
Dearborn, Michigan 48126-3799

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Introduction

To my mind, talking about marketing across cultures is really talking about international trade. There is no satisfactory standard of living without foreign trade. No single nation anywhere, anytime, has attained a leadership role in world affairs without foreign trade.

When discussing the pros and cons of trade, we should never forget that approximately one out of every eight American jobs depends somehow on healthy trade arrangements with the rest of the world. International trade also creates a sense of interdependence among world nations and can have the side effect of enhancing world peace. "We need you and you need us" is the unspoken theme as a continuous flow of imports and exports ties countries together with invisible threads of mutual benefits and frequently enhanced mutual trust. Trade is still a positive force in the long-run, even though there may be short-run difficulties. There is a continuing unwillingness to accept the fact that business now is predominantly a matter of international competition and economics - that traditional domestic conventions are not necessary valid today. In spite of that feeling, Americans have been pragmatic.

The perception of diminshed U.S. competitiveness stems not only from the trade deficit but from the impression that U.S. trade performance compares poorly with that of other countries, especially that of Japan. Declining U.S. competitiveness is evident in a shift from decades of trade surpluses to substantial deficits, eroding market share in almost all sectors and declining profitability since the late 1960's.

Americans have long thought that they could automatically sell products designed for American consumers to foreign consumers without considering the differences in language culture life style and business pratices.

Now more than ever, a clear knowledge and understanding of languages, cultures and customs is essential to successfully marketing products and services around the world. The development of multilingualism and international sensitivity and understanding in the United States is essential to our future prosperity and directly related to world peace.

Issues and Problems

In cross cultural marketing, much more than language is needed. A prospective overseas representative must be sensitive to the fact that people communicate with certain movements of their bodies as well as with words. Cultural understanding enables one to conduct business and relate to people without constantly analyzing situations and without making too many mistakes.

One of the main areas investigated in international business barriers are language, technology levels, conception of authority, enviornmental perception, contexting and social organization! We need to understand these more fully to meet the foreign competition. Ignoring any of these concepts perhaps is the quickest road to failure.

Recent studies now indicate that language skills that are taught at academic institutions are often "too low and too scholastic; level of instructions are totally unarticulated, and not enough instruction in languages appropriate for the 21st century". Studies also show inadequate information about the extent to which adults can apply language training they obtained early in their lives.

In my interactions with Indonesians about how Americans do business, three themes emerge constantly: the U.S. Business person is to impatient, places too much stress on "legalism" and is often inflexible.

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[1] The Concepts concerning risk and uncertainity remain unchanged when entering the international area.

It is important to pay attention to how others see the U.S. business person. Conducting business in Jakarta is not like marketing within Michigan, things do not happen overnight.

My study has helped me identify the differences between the U.S. and Indonesia. The two countries differ in their views of justice, law, life and death, the family, the value of time, morality, and the management of the enterprise. The differences should not be interpreted as a barrier to effective bussiness relations.

What, then are the salient points of beginning solutions to the problems of cross cultural marketing?

- We must recognize ourselves and other men/women as cultural creatures subject to the situational and institutional pressures which affect our behavior.
- We must be willing to accept foreign cultures as valid expressions of human nature that, in essence, are no different than our own.
- We must be sensitive to the smallest nuances of other people's behavior so that we can use it as a guide for our own in establishing meaningful communication.
- Personal contact and the style of contact may be more important than the content of the business deal.
- A joint venture partner and reliable agent are crucial to the success of the bussiness. No company should assume that they can pass off on Indonesia second rate work or products. Be sure you really do have a product that offers something new or different.

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[2] See Appendix 1

[3] Cultural relativism is a theory to which most cultural anthropologists and many other intellectuals subscribe that asserts that all cultures are of equal value and fulfill roughly the same funcion everywhere.

- Select the right U.S. based person to oversee your efforts. Not just anyone will do. America has an appalling shortage of executives who are actually and linguistically capable of effectiveness overseas - especially in Indonesia. The individual who links the Indonesian organization with the U.S. organization must be comfortable and credible in both cultures.
- We must attract gifted and committed men and women into cross cultural marketing.
- American business person has to work at cultivating the Indonesian trust. Patience, flexibility, long-term commitment and professionalism.

It is reasonable, therefore, to conclude that only firms with a thorough understanding of foreign languages, customs and culture, will be competitive in a global economy.

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[4] Interestingly enough, there are approximately 10,000 English speaking Japanese executives who work in the United States handling billions of dollors in trade, but very few of the 1,000 U.S. citizens in Japan can speak Japanese.

Business opportunities in Indonesia

Americans know very little about Indonesia, and regional capital cities such as Manila, Singapore or Bangok are better known to Americans than Jakarta, despite the fact that the population in Indonesia in 1986 was estimated as 170 million people. Indonesia is the fifth most populus nation in the world. Its religious pluralism, which feature all major religions of the world, and 366 different ethnic groups make Indonesia the country with the largest mixture of races and peoples.

> "Indonesia is a rich, beautifulo and complex land, and merits the U.S. business person's attention. Because of its location, its recent record of close ties with the U.S. and its free enterprise philosophy, its sucess as a nation is important to us. A large part of the U.S. role in that success lies with the American private sector."

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[5] The author is indebted to both Ambassadors John H. Holdridge and Edward E. Masters for helpful comments on a previous draft. The contents of this paper are, however, the author's responsibility.

There are tremendous opportunities in Indonesia for the U.S. investors in many areas and can be very profitable, especially agribusiness, labor intensive manufacturing, mineral exploitation, shipping & repair, tourism and service industry.

Most foreign investment studies have shown that investment decisions are primarily influenced by investment decisions are primarily influenced by investment climate, political stability, and profit opportunities. On the other, these decisions are only managerially influenced by measures taken by home or host countries to encourage investment flow or to direct it to a specific sector or location.

The comparative advantage of Indonesia in attracting foreign direct investment lies in political stability, riches in natural resources, low labor cost, large local and export markets, dynamic and sustained economic development, appropriate fiscal monetary and trade policies, good international credit standing, and lower corporate taxes. However, in undertaking any business venture, three factors are present: risk, opportunities and rewards. Indonesia offers all of them.

Appendix 1

Summary of Indonesia's view (selected factors)

Selected Factors	Elements	Description
BELIEF SYSTEM	1. God (Allah)	Supreme God, creator, oneness.
	2. Religions	Islam, Christianity, Hinduism and Buddhism.
	3. Unity of spirit and matter	Spirit is united with body
	4. Hereafter	Continuaation of life after death; hereafter is the day of Judgement.
SOCIAL STRUCTURE	1. Extended family	Great on individual
	2. Clan Solidarity	Tribe and Clan
	3. Marriage	Marriage between relatives can be found.
SOCIALIZATION	1. Family Role	Great on individual
	2. Father Role	Control of childen
	3. Mother Role	Show more affection for child than father
	4. Sexual Role	Stress on sexual differences
	5. Age Role	The young obey and respect the eldest.
	6. Authority	Aged male people

BARRIERS IMPACT U.S. MARKETING TO THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

by

Prof. Leila Metzger
Business/Computer Science Dept.
Ocean County College
College Drive
Toms River, NJ 08753

Prof. Leila Metzger
Business/Computer Science Dept.
Ocean County College
College Drive
Toms River, NJ 08753

BARRIERS IMPACT U.S. MARKETING TO THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

Introduction

With the recent accession of Spain and Portugal the European Community now unites twelve countries into a "Common Market." This Common Market has over 320 million consumers, approximately 85 million more than in the United States. As a leading economic partner for many countries, the European Community accounts for about one-fifth of world trade. Although the European Community buys approximately one-fourth of total United States exports, this figure represents only 8 percent of the European Community's total imports.

Aside from language, other barriers face the United States in attempting to increase exports to the European Community. Three barriers examined in this paper are trade protectionism, cultural sovereignty, and the recent enlargement of the European Community.

European Community As A Market

Formed in 1957, the European Community represented an effort to expand trade and economic development by the original members: Belgium, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, and the Netherlands. They were joined in 1973 by Denmark, Ireland, and the United Kingdom, and in 1981 by Greece. Spain and Portugal became members in 1986.

Population

Table 1 shows the population, area, and population density for the Member States of the European Community, the European Community in total, and the United States. As shown, the European Community has a total population of more than 320 million people, over 35 percent more people than in the United States. The countries in the European Community vary in area and population density. As shown on Table 1, Belgium, the Federal Republic of Germany, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom have higher population densities than Ireland, Greece, or Spain. The average population density of the European Community is more than 5 times that of the United States. High population density provides easier and more frequent access to ultimate consumers for advertisers and easier physical distribution of products for producers.

Gross Domestic Product and Imports

In addition to population and population density marketers consider consumer purchasing power in assessing markets. Purchasing power may be determined by calculating the average per capita gross domestic product as shown by the figures on Table 2 in column 2. These figures show the average per capita gross domestic product for the European Community to be about $7400. Although, this is a little less than one-half of the average per capita gross domestic product for the United States, it is wealthy by world standards and indicates good potential purchasing power.

The purchasing power of the European Community Members is used for domestic as well as imported goods. As shown on Table 2, column 3, all of the Member States are active importing products. Imports, as a percentage of gross domestic product, are most significant to the countries of the Belgo-Luxembourg Economic Union, Ireland, the Netherlands, and Portugal. Even though imports are least important to France, Italy, and Spain, they still represented about one-fifth of each country's gross domestic product.

Average imports per capita for the European Community, as shown in Table 2, column 4, were over 35 percent more than for the United States. Twenty-seven percent of the gross domestic product was spent by the European Community for imports in comparison to 9 percent by the United States.

Sources of European Community Imports

The figures on Table 3 show that 35 percent of the total imports to the European Community were traded among Member States in 1958. This grew to 51 percent by 1982. The growth was fostered by a range of agreements, including the abolition of customs duties and quantitative restrictions among the Member States. Over the period from 1958 to 1982, the European Community's imports from the United States declined from 11 percent to 8 percent.

Trade Between the European Community and the United States

As shown on Table 4, in 1985 the United States imported nearly $72 billion worth of products from the European Community. For the same year the United States exported to the European Community approximately $49 billion worth of products. Within that dollar volume, the top five categories of United States exports to the European Community were: (1) office machinery; (2) digital computers; (3) coal; (4) aircraft, engines & parts; and (5) food and agricultural products.

Barriers And Their Marketing Implications

A range of varied and complex barriers affect United States marketing to the European Community. Of the barriers, three have been selected to illustrate their effects on marketing.

Trade Protectionism

Both the European Community and the United States are interested in protecting their industries and avoiding trade wars. Examples of this protectionism are the situations of steel and corn.

The European Community has been trying to protect its declining steel industry against foreign import restraints. In 1982 the United States imported about $160 million worth of specialty steel products from the European Community.[7*] This product class is high priced and one of the few profitable segments of the European Community's ailing steel industry. In July, 1983 the United States imposed for four years import restraints, both tariffs and quotas, on specialty steel products from the European Community.

Beginning in March, 1984 the European Community retaliated by imposing import restrictions on certain United States products. Import quotas and tariff increases were placed for four years on United States manufactured chemicals, plastics, sporting goods, burglar and fire alarms, gymnastic equipment, snow skis, and sporting guns. The United States sold the European Community about $130 million worth of these products in the year prior to the imposition of the import restrictions.

In December, 1986 the United States announced that it planned to restrict imports from the European Community in retaliation for tariff increases on U.S. corn sales to Spain. The dispute arose because tariffs on U.S. corn were changed by Spain after the accession of both Spain and Portugal by the European Community in 1986. Spain's 20 percent tariff on both corn and sorghum, feed grains, was replaced by the European Community's variable levy system, a method whereby tariffs may be changed depending on the harvests of the European Community.[2] According to U.S. trade officials, this change amounted to a tariff of 100 percent. Therefore, the

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*Superscripts in text refer to references at end of paper.

United States exports of these feed grains, a long-established market, would decline by $400 million to $500 million a year.

The United States vowed to impose duties, effective on January 30, 1987, on imports of olives, carrots, wine, cheeses, gin, brandy, endives, and canned ham.[5] The European Community warned it would retaliate further against the duties by imposing wider grain tariffs.

This trade war was averted 24 hours before it was to start. Trade wars come and go; however, they present barriers to marketers. In the future, potential sales of United States goods may be lessened by trade protectionism and other retaliatory measures on the part of the European Community.

Cultural Sovereignty

The United States multinational companies provide a large number of global communications and cultural services to the European Community. Among these are records, cassettes, films, television, training given to employees of foreign subsidiaries, teaching materials, and support of university research. In addition, the United States impacts the European Community with both American journalism and advertising.

Records and live concert performances affect the culture and potential for marketing goods. U.S. firms supply about 50 percent of the global market in the recording industry. Live concert performances, especially by such well-known rock stars as Bruce Springsteen, provide arenas where the youth of the European Community wear jeans and T-shirts bearing the names of American universities, states, and products. After such performances, thousands of Coca-Cola bottles can be found littering the ground.

The United States film industry provides films for 35 percent of the market in France; 50 percent of the markets in Italy, the Netherlands, and Denmark; 60 percent of the Federal Republic of Germany's market; and 80 percent of the market in the United Kingdom.[1] Markets are reached and penetrated through the cinema. American products seen in American movies have a strong chance of being desired and purchased by viewers in the European Community. This same concept was stated in the 1930's by President Herbert Hoover when he said "Where the American film penetrates the market, we sell more American automobiles, more baseball caps, and more American phonographs."[4]

American characters such as Mickey Mouse and Superman are familiar to the children of the European Community as are J.R. and Rambo to the adults. Products, such as Coca-Cola and McDonald's, are available throughout the Member States.

The cultural fabric of the European Community is being threatened by the dominant position of the United States film industry. Present reaction by the European Community to the United States' pervasive influence on its culture is to seek ways to counteract the domination.

One such way is a plan to set up a European film board which would help finance feature films produced by companies working in two or more Member States.[3]

Future reaction may take the form of the public boycotting United States films because of a resurgence in cultural pride. If this were to happen, United States marketers could suffer a loss of potential product sales.

Enlargement of the European Community

Among the complex treaty conditions for entry into the European Community, Spain and Portugal agreed to lower their tariff and non-tariff barriers to trade. The lowering of barriers was allowed in phases, with full compliance with the treaty scheduled for 1993. This phased approach was considered essential to minimize disruption in the economies of Spain and Portugal, which are highly agricultural in comparison with other Member States of the European Community.

Compliance with the treaty will result in zero customs duties on imports to Spain and Portugal from other Member States of the European Community. Although there are complex details for specific situations, intra-Community trade will be beneficial to Spain and Portugal as well as to the other ten Member States of the European Community.

Non-member countries of the European Community, such as the United States, will face increased difficulty in exporting to Spain and Portugal.

For example, while imports from the European Community will have zero customs duties, the duties on United States manufactured products are projected to decline only to 7 percent by 1993.[6] Duties on United States agricultural products are expected to increase as evidenced by the situation with corn during 1986.

As a result of the aforementioned disparity in customs duties, and other factors, a number of observers do not expect any increases in exports to Spain and Portugal from the United States. In fact, the decline in exports over the last few years could worsen, especially in view of the agricultural situation.

The treaty conditions for Spain and Portugal could result in some benefits for the United States, although not for exports of major dollar volume. For example, copyright and patent laws in both Spain and Portugal have been extremely weak. It is estimated that 80 percent of the video cassette market in Portugal and over 55 percent of Spain's video cassette market are composed of pirated products.[8] Similar situations exist for designer clothing and pharmaceuticals. As a result, the copyright or patent holder enjoys no financial benefit from the sales. Under the terms of the treaty both countries agreed to provide copyright and patent protection. Because of this protection, legitimate goods could be substituted potentially for the pirated ones, thereby increasing some exports from the United States.

Conclusion

For a quarter of a century the United States gradually has lost market share in the European Community. The barriers highlighted in this paper contribute to further decline. The challenge is for United States marketers to overcome the barriers and increase exports to the European Community. Marketers may be able to overcome these barriers through awareness and education.

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[6] Miller, Randall and Corro, Ann. "EC Membership Will Bring Many Changes." Business America, 9, No. 6, March 17, 1986, p. 10.

[7] "News of the E.C.--E.C. Strikes Back Over Specialty Steel Curbs." Europe, No. 242, March/April 1984, pg. 50.

[8] Office of the United States Trade Representative. National Trade Estimate: 1986 Report on Foreign Trade Barriers. Washington, D.C.: GPO, 1986.

TABLE 1

AREA, POPULATION, AND POPULATION DENSITY[1]

COUNTRY	POPULATION IN THOUSANDS	AREA IN SQ. MILES	POPULATION PER SQ. MILE
Belgium	9,872	11,781	838
Denmark	5,112	16,629	307
France	54,872	211,207	260
Germany, Fed. Rep. of	61,387	95,976	640
Greece	9,984	50,944	196
Ireland	3,575	27,136	132
Italy	56,998	116,303	490
Luxembourg	366	998	367
Netherlands	14,437	15,770	915
Portugal	10,045	35,553	283
Spain	38,435	194,896	197
United Kingdom	56,023	94,226	595
European Community	321,106	871,419	368
United States	236,690	3,615,105	65

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[1] U.S. Bureau of the Census. Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1985. 105th ed., Washington, D.C.: GPO, December, 1984, Table #1475, pp. 839-841.

TABLE 2

GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT (GDP) AND IMPORTS FOR 1984

COUNTRY	GDP[1] U.S. DOLLARS MILLIONS	GDP PER CAPITA U.S. DOLLARS	TOTAL[2] IMPORTS U.S. DOLLARS MILLIONS	IMPORTS PER CAPITA U.S. DOLLARS
Belgo-Luxembourg Economic Union	81,481	7,959	55,303	5,369
Denmark	54,633	10,687	16,585	3,252
France	489,434	8,920	103,807	1,912
Germany, Fed. Rep. of	613,356	9,992	151,246	2,463
Greece	33,466	3,352	9,434	953
Ireland	17,717	4,956	9,663	2,761
Italy	348,385	6,112	84,215	1,485
Netherlands	123,048	8,523	62,136	4,345
Portugal	19,154	1,907	7,978	790
Spain	160,926	4,187	28,812	750
United Kingdom	425,541	7,596	105,961	1,879
European Community	2,367,141	7,372	635,140	1,978
United States	3,634,582	15,355	341,177	1,457

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[1] 1983-84 Statistical Yearbook. 34th ed., New York, N.Y.: Dept. of Intl. Economic & Social Affairs, Statistical Office, United Nations, 1986, Table #24, Section B, pp. 100-103.

[2] 1983-84 Statistical Yearbook. Table #160, pp. 896-904.

TABLE 3

SOURCES OF EUROPEAN COMMUNITY IMPORTS AS A PERCENTAGE OF EUROPEAN COMMUNITY TOTAL TRADE

REGION	IMPORTS[1]	
	1958	1982
European Community[2]	35	51
European Free Trade Association	10	9
United States	11	8
Japan	1	3
Other industrialized countries	11	5
Eastern bloc	4	4
Third World	28	20
Total	100	100

[1] Figures calculated from Monthly Trade Bulletin, 1958-1982 Special Issue, Luxembourg: Statistical Office of the European Communities. All figures were rounded.

[2] Trade Among European Community Member States.

TABLE 4

TRADE BETWEEN EUROPEAN COMMUNITY AND U.S. FOR 1985 IN MILLIONS OF U.S. DOLLARS[1]

COUNTRY	U.S. IMPORTS	U.S. EXPORTS
Belgo-Luxembourg Economic Union	3,567	4,918
Denmark	1,794	706
France	9,960	6,096
Germany, Fed. Rep. of	21,232	9,050
Greece	428	498
Ireland	942	1,342
Italy	10,381	4,625
Netherlands	4,368	7,269
Portugal	598	695
Spain	2,774	2,524
United Kingdom	15,573	11,273
European Community	71,617	48,996

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[1] "West Europe." Business America, 9 No. 6, March 17, 1986, pp. 6-14.

Transcending Communication Barriers with West Africa

Lena Ampadu

Towson State University

Running head: TRANSCENDING COMMUNICATION BARRIERS

Author Notes

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Requests for reprints should be sent to the author at the Department of English-American Literature, Towson State University, Towson, Maryland 21204.

Abstract

Because of the emerging global economy in the United States, Americans doing business here or abroad have a wider need to communicate with persons from other cultures. This interaction may be with West Africans, persons of whom Americans have many unfounded misconceptions and biases. This paper will explore some of these mistaken beliefs and will examine how language, stereotyping, and ethnocentrism limit Americans' ability to successfully communicate with West Africans. Based on the author's experiences traveling in and living with persons from West Africa, the paper offers a number of practical solutions that enhance the oral and written communication process between persons from two vastly different cultures.

Transcending Communication
Barriers with West Africa

On the threshold of rapid change is the U.S. economy as it struggles to compete in the marketplace abroad. In their futuristic novels, two well-known authors assert this fact. Alvin Toffler (1980) declares that the world is becoming more interconnected with the rise of the global corporation. John Naisbitt (1982) predicts that the United States' economy is shifting from a national one to a global one. Indeed, the world is becoming a global village; therefore, many American businessmen and women may find themselves increasingly having to communicate in a global market. Most Americans need to be able to interact successfully with persons from less-industrialized societies or the so-called developing nations since persons from these countries differ from the average American in hue, in hair texture, in culture, and in worldview or basic value system.

Perhaps Americans in business may work in developing nations like those in West Africa, or they may work in American companies employing West African workers or having customers who hail from that developing region. They may even work in companies exporting to or importing from there. Therefore, whether Americans have to deal with the West African in this country or abroad, they should be prepared to skillfully and sensitively communicate within such an intercultural environment.

However, many barriers prevent a meaningful, successful cultural interchange. In looking at communication with West Africa, this paper will attempt to perfect the intercultural communication process by isolating three important barriers: language, stereotype, and ethnocentrism.

West Africans have a diverse linguistic heritage. There are at least nine major language groups which are further subdivided into dialect clusters, ranging from ten in some areas to 46 in others.

The West Atlantic languages are spoken along the Coast from Senegal to Liberia to the Ivory Coast. Major indigenous languages spoken and written are Twi, Yoruba, Hausa, Ewe, Ga, Wolof, and Mande.

In those countries once under British rule, educated persons and others who have acquired basic conversational English still widely use this language of international commerce. But because the British have greatly influenced these Africans' speech patterns, one would have to become accustomed to the pronunciation, expressions, and idioms.

In Ghana, for example, *minerals* refer to soda or pop, not to diamond, copper, or malachite, which abounds in some parts of Africa. Also, *meeting one at a round-a-bout to take a lorry* translates as *meeting at a circle to board a truck* (a form of private transit system).

In any English-speaking country in West Africa, *a* as in *tomato* is pronounced *ah* (tō mah tō) or *banana* (bah nah nah).

When communicating in writing, one should expect to see the formal writing style of the British. Letters may contain expressions that Americans label as stilted or outmoded: *We trust that you will find*, *most faithfully yours*. All forms of written communication use British variants: *colour* instead of *color*, *favour* instead of *favor*, *cheque* instead of *check*, *centre* instead of *center*. Dates are written with the date preceding the month, so look for the date May 15, 1987 (5/15/87) to be written as 15/5/87.

Stereotyping, a very destructive behavior which makes persons see others as "caricatures, overlooking their individuality," (Draguns, 1980) is another barrier to meaningful communication with West Africans.

When most Americans think of Africa, they visualize a hot, steamy place filled with jungles teeming with wild animals and naked men and women. Actually, true jungles rarely exist in Africa. Many tropical rain forests cover about one-fifth of the continent. Untamed animals live in the savannas or grasslands, which cover more than two-fifths of the continent. This fascinating continent is a land where temperatures are as varied as its languages and its peoples. One may find a 163° day in the Sahara, but a 70° day in the mountains of the Kwahu region in Ghana is not uncommon. Africans wear either brightly colored traditional dress or fashionable, sometimes trendy Western-style clothing. Still, others may be as skimpily clad as Western bikini wearers. Visitors to the continent frequently become overwhelmed by the unexpected mind-boggling diversity in this land of contrasts.

Today, the Western media continues perpetuating stereotypes. Everyone is familiar with Tarzan, king of the jungle, whom Alex Haley (The Baltimore Sun, 1987), author of Roots, says was the "single image of Africa" shown in the West before his best selling novel and popular movie. Tarzan is still reigning in the jungle as millions of American children watch him in television cartoons and read about him in comic books.

More recently, the image being perpetuated is one of the hungry, poor African. The recent Ethiopian famine relief efforts, along with the CARE commercials, firmly implant the destitute, starving African image in Americans' minds. Even though Ethiopia is in eastern Africa, its plight is associated with that of West Africa and of other parts of the continent.

Ethnocentrism is a third barrier to communicating across cultures. The term originated by Sumner in his book Folkways is used to denote the tendency of most people to use their own beliefs, values, mores, practices, and so on "as a standard for judging others." (Hoult, 1969).

Most stories on other countries and cultures written in today's newspapers and shown on television are ethnocentric. Even the courses offered in America's schools and colleges imply that our country is the greatest while others are inferior. World History and World Literature courses usually do not include topics on Africa or works written by African authors. Recently while speaking at a conference in Louisiana, Wole Soyinka, Nobel prize-winning Nigerian novelist, spoke about how Americans tend to overlook works published by West African authors. He accused America of "ignoring a recent burst of literature coming out of Africa." (The Louisiana Weekly, 1987). What is the solution to overcoming these barriers to successful communication with West Africans? Finding persons who are prepared to educate themselves about the language and literature of this culturally different region and who are willing to shift their culturally limited means of interacting with persons from West Africa would be an ideal starting point for embarking upon this venture.

Since communicating with a culture through its language is important, Americans interested in doing business with West Africans must overcome their narrowness in linguistic sophistication by learning to speak a few expressions in the indigenous language of the country with which they will have dealings to begin to successfully communicate interculturally. For example, learning a few expressions in Twi, Ewe, or Ga, if they will be dealing with Ghanaians, or learning expressions in Yoruba or Hausa if they will be dealing with Nigerians will certainly enhance the intercultural encounter.

A further step to successful intercultural communication is for Americans to become aware of stereotyping created by Western media. They must work to dispel damaging stereotypes by becoming acquainted with modern African cinema and publications. They should view movies and documentaries promoting positive African images. Movies created by internationally-famous Senegalese producer, Ousmane Sembene, and a documentary produced by Ali Mazrui, well-respected Kenyan scholar, do much to expand our knowledge of African culture. Also, Americans must read publications like _West Africa_, _African Report_ and _African Business_ to learn about the political and economic outlook for West African countries.

Lastly, for Americans to successfully interact with West Africans, they must adjust their ethnocentric attitudes toward foreign cultures. Certainly, a starting place for accomplishing this adjustment is to begin to understand the worldview or basic value system of a people. Exploring the rich literary heritage of West Africans reveals much about their values. Reading fables, proverbs, and song lyrics offers one the ability "to make a distinction between traditional values and modern ones that have replaced or become integrated with traditional ones." (Roberts, 1979). Just as reading works by James Baldwin, Ralph Ellison, Alice Walker, and Toni Morrison provides one with aspects of the African-American perspective in literature so would reading works by Ayi Kwei Armah, Chinua Achebe, Cyprian Ekwensi, Wole Soyinka and Ama Ata Aidoo give us a much-needed African prespective in literature.

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Finally, those who are most willing to broaden their awareness of other cultures through an understanding of their history, art, and culture should prove to be the most valuable and sought after by today's multinational corporations.

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OVERCOMING GLOBAL TRADE BARRIERS:
U.S. STRATEGIC CHOICES

BY

ALY MAASARANI, PH.D.
ST. JOHN'S UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
JAMAICA, NEW YORK 11439

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OVERCOMING GLOBAL TRADE BARRIERS:
U.S. STRATEGIC CHOICES

BY

ALY MAASARANI, PH.D.

In 1985, the United States for the first time in its trade history, had become a debtor nation. Given the public outcry over increasing trade deficits, and unfair foreign trade practices, the U.S. Congress in 1986, introduced 530 trade-related bills to protect U.S. industries and to limit imports. This has led to controversies and debate between "Free trade" advocates and "Protectionism" supporters in Congress. Under the free trade doctrine, goods and services move freely in the international competition which will improve efficiency and economic welfare of the nation. Protectionism is the protection of domestic industries from foreign competition. Opponents of protectionisim fear that international trade barriers can and would lead to retaliatory actions by affected nations, and would start trade wars. The best approach, they reason, is to negotiate bilateral and multilateral free trade agreements with our trading partners. In cases of unfair foreign trade practices, they added, we should impose trade restrictions and close the loop holes currently allowing other nations to avoid paying duties on imports.

This study presents (1) the principle types of trade barriers, (2) the arguments for both protectionism and trade libralization, and (3) recommends alternative strategies for U.S. to overcome global trade barriers.

1. TRADE BARRIERS

U.S. government, through its foreign economic policy, may restrict and control international trade and investment to achieve social, economic and political goals. There are two principle types of trade barriers, tariff and non tariff barriers (NTBs).

Tariff Barriers

A tariff is a tax or duty levied by the government on commodities when crossing national boundries (customs area). Tariffs levied on goods leaving U.S. customs area are called export tariffs, where as duties on commodities entering the U.S. are called import tariffs. The most common tariffs, however, are import tariffs. Such tariffs are imposed for various reasons: (1) to retaliate against other nations for unfair foreign trade practicies such as "dumping", (2) to limit foreign expenditure by Americans, (3) to improve our balance of payment, and (4) to provide the government with a source of revenue. One example of such tariff is the 15 percent duty on Canadian lumber which was imposed by the U.S. (October, 1986) to protect the badly injured American lumber industry. Another example, is the recent proposal (on March 27, 1987) by President Reagan to impose a 100% duties on $300 million worth of Japanese imports of electronic products.[1] The high tariff will take effect on April 17, 1987, after public hearing. This tariff will double the import price and will virtually stop imports of these products. The result of such tariff is price increase for American consumer. It will hurt also American companies that sell these Japanese products.

There are three types of import duties: Specific,ally ad valorem and compound duties which are the combination of the first two. Specific duties may by assessed on the basis of a physical unit such as dollars per pound or per bushel. Ad valorem, on the other hand, are calculated as a percentage of the value of the product.

Non Tariff Barriers

Under The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) most industrial nations have agreed to gradually cut tariffs and eliminate quotas. In order to restrict imports, stimulate and promote exports, nations have used a less visible, though effective, type of trade barriers - Non tariff barriers. Tabale I shows the various types of NTBs.[2]

A look at the table indicates that NTBs are the most effective measures to restrict trade and limit imports for two main reasons. First, importers may have to follow complicated processes and procedures, and face administrative delays before trade. As a result of such requirement, the importer may have to endure the high cost of the transactions, with the uncertainty of the outcome. Second, NTBs are mostly hidden barriers and may be very hard to identify. Therefore, it would be very difficult to deal with in international trade negotiations. The best strategy for nations to discourage the use of NTBs is to try to negotiate "a voluntary restraint of trade" to avoid confrontation over international trade, and to provide for a climate to deter trade wars.

In the next section, we are going to present the arguments for both "Protectionism" and "Free Trade."

TABLE I

CATEGORIES OF NTBS

1. Customs and Entry Procedures

0 **Tariff classification.**

Duties are imposed on a particular product on the basis of its definition in one of various tariff classifications schedule. (i.e. end-use of the product or the degree of processing).

0 **Customs Valuation.**

Taxes are levied on goods according to a commplicated valuation processes which are left to the discretion of customs officals.

0 **Antidumping Regulation.**

Punitive antidumping duties are imposed to stop exporting nations from dumping their product on foreign markets. (i.e. selling their product at lower prices in foreign than in home markets, and causing "material injury" to a domestic industry - article 6 of GATT).

0 **Documentation Requirements.**

Application, various forms and documents would be required before trade could take place.

0 **Fees.**

The payment of special fees and charges for customs clearance to cover the costs of entry procedures.

2. Specific Limitations on Trade

0 **Quotas.**

Setting a limit on the quantity or value of an imported product during a specific period of time. For example, putting a limit on the number of imported Japanese cars to the U.S. in a given year. In this case however, the Japanese Government voluntiarily agreed to limit their exports of automobiles to the U.S. for the following three years to 1.68 million cars per year. Such agreements are called "A voluntary restrain of trade."

0 **Embargoes.**

Imports of specific product from specific country are prohibited, (i.e. sugar from Cuba). Embargoes are used for political purposes and may leave a serious effect on the economy of the exporting nation.

0 **Import Restraints.**

Proportion restrictions of foreign to domestic goods. For example, the quantity of sugar imported into the U.S. have been always limited to half the amount of sugar produced in the States.

0 **Specific Permission Requirements.**

Licensing. Importers as well as exporters, must obtain licenses before trade.

0 **Foreign Exchange Control.**

Importers must have approval from the government to secure foreign exchange to pay for the imported goods.

0 **Specific Export Permission to Communist Countries.**

Specific export permission requirements on product that could be of strategic military importance to the communist bloc countries.

3. Standards

0 **Standards for Products Packaging, Labeling and Marketing Standards.**

Such standards may inhibit the sale of foreign-made products.

0 **Government Testing Standards Requirements.**

Imposing different acceptance standards or testing methods to protect the safety and health of the population. (i.e. imported cars from Europe and Japan have to be tested under onerous conditions.)

4. Government Participation In Trade

0 **Discrimination in government procurement policies.**

Favoring domestic sproduct over foreign-made product without regoard to quality or price.

0 **"Buy local" Legislation.**

"Busy American product and goods." Government sometimes enact a legislation that local firms and agencies should buy domestically made goods and parts.

0 **Subsidies.**

Direct subsidies by government to promote exports. These include providing information, sponsoring trade expositions, providing low interrest rate loans and repayment insurance for exporters. The government may also provide funds for research and development to help in the export of chemical products. The U.S. agricultural support program may be considered as an indirect form of protection.

0 **Countervailing Duty.**

It is a special surtax in addition to the tariff duties, which is generally equal to the amount of foreign subsidy (A remedy allowed by GATT).

5. **Import Charges**

0 Customs Depoists have to be placed by importers in advance of shipment. The deposit is refunded when the importer pays for the goods.

0 **Credit Restrictions**

0 **Special Duties**

0 **Variable Levies**

0 **Variable Administration Fees.**

6. **Other NTBs**

0 **Informal Quotas.**

Sometimes called voluntary restraints of trade discussed earlier. For example, Japanese Government agreed to limit the number of color television sets exported to the U.S.

0 **Health and Safety Protection.**

Restricting the imports of agricultural or animal products to protect the health of the citizens and to keep out agricultural pets and diseases.

II. TRADE REFORM: "PROTECTIONISM" VERSUS "FREE TRADE"

On May of 1986, the House passed the Trade and International Economic Policy Act of 1985. Taken as a whole the measure is protectionist and would result in retaliatory measures taken by other nations against U.S. exports.[3] The Regan administration is against protectionism, and would veto such mesure. On March of 1987, the House Ways and Means Committee approved a trade Bill which, Representative Don Rostenkowski, head of the Committee, called "tough but fair."[4]

In this section the arguments for and against protectionism are presented, followed by the recommended strategy for the trade reform policy in the last section. The arguments for both Protectioism and Free Trade are summarized in Table II.

Nine basic arguments are presented, together with quotations from the House debate on the Trade and International Economic Policy Act of 1986 (H.R. 4800). The quotations here are only meant to show the arguments of the proponents of Protectionism and the advocates of Free Trade.[3]

TABLE II

"PROTECTIONISM" VERSUS "FREE TRADE"

Protectionism Arguments	Free Trade Arguments
1. **The Home Market Argument** American producer has a right to domestic market. By eliminating imports, more goods will be produced at home, more jobs will be created more money will be kept at home and our country will be richer. "Today 70 percent of U.S. goods must compete with foreign products in domestic and foreign markets." Rep. Gephardt.	The fallacy of this argument is that we shift our production form import to export. The question is which nation would be willing to buy our exports if we do not import their goods? (Retaliation). This would lead to less efficient economy because we have to depend entirely upon domestic sources of supply. ". . .it will be the families in our respective districts and millions of others who suffer if we invite retaliation with our misguided macboism." Rep. Michel.

2. **Low-Wage Argument** American labor and American industry should be protected from "unfair" competition form low-wage workers in foreign countries.	This argument assumes that labor is the only factor of production to increase productivity. Other production factors such as capital, management and technology should also be considered when measuring productivity and unit cost. Furthermore, one country may have a comparative advantage in low-cost labor. Here in the U.S., we may have a comparative advantage in technology capital and transportation, which would make us more productive than those nations with only low-wage advantage. "Some in this House have lost sight of those who on the other side of the equation rely heavily on exports." Rep. Michel.
3. **Equalization-of-Cost-of-Production Argument** The U.S. should impose tariffs to equalize all production costs between foreign and domestic producers to provide for "Fair Competition".	First, it would be difficult, if not impossible to obtain the necessary information about the cost of foreign product. Furthermore, it would entail a considerable administrative cost to enforce such tariff.

4. **Domestic Employment Argument**

U.S. has to restrict imports to create jobs and protect some industries (i.e. textiles) from foreign competition.

". . .the United States operates at a self-imposed disadvantage in the international marketplace."

"The solution. . .is to tighten up and expand the applicability of U.S. trade laws. . ." Rep. Snowe.

Second, the very reason for international trade to take place is the existance of cost advantage of production among nations.

"We need lower interest rates, lower tax rates and lower, not higher, trade barriers to put these Americans back to work." Rep. Kemp.

Such protection may lead other countries to retaliate. It may also lead to decrease in exports and result in higher prices for domestic products. In the final analysis, costs of import restrictions should be compared with costs of unemployment.

"We need. . .to reject the austerity policies of the IMF and the other multilateral banks that have driven the developing world into a state of near pauperism."

"America's prosperity is inextricably intertwined with the welfare of our allies and major trading partners." Rep. Kemp.

5. Infant Industry Argument. Protection is needed in the early stage of an infant industry and to give it time for expanding to an efficient scale of production.	Hard to choose the type of industry that can become competitive. Who should bear costs during the industries' infancies, taxpayers, investors or consumers?
6. Industrialization and Development Argument. We should increase our industrial production and implement a long range of economic development goals to diversify our economy.	Industrialization may not lead to competitiveness in the world market.

"Demanding freedom of access to their markets isn't protectionism, it's free trade." . . .

"The world trading system has no sanctions against countries who structure themselves to run up large surpluses." Rep. Gephardt.

"We are losing our competitive position in country after country and product after product." Rep. Lundine.

7. Balance of Payments Argument.

Selective trade restrictions on goods and services would help reduce our deficit and improve our balance of payment (i.e. restrict importation of luxury items by high tariffs).

"It is important for the United States to continue to emphasize to Japan that we find its dependence on export surpluses unacceptable." Rep. Gephardt.

"This country simply cannot sustain trade deficits of this magnitude." Rep. Lafalce.

It is how to decide which industry and or services to be selected for protection. A luxury item to U.S. (French Wines) may be an essential export item to other countries. We have to consider retaliation.

"Other nations are just waiting for us to give them an excuse to shut the doors to our products." Rep. Michel.

8. Antidumping Argument.

Impose high tariff to prevent dumping and protect domestic industry such as color television, and computer chips. These products were being sold in the United States at prices much below those

Dumping is illegal and nations should be punished for such practices. However, we must try to stop it by negotiations and market agreements to prevent retaliations and trade wars.

in Japan. Antidumping Tariffs would stop nations from following such practice. Furthermore, such nation may be encouraged to bargain away restrictions of their own.

9. National Security Argument.

Protecting high-cost domestic industries (steel and textile) during peace time so that in case of war such supplies would be available domestically. On the basis of the strategic argument transfers of nuclear raw materials and technology are controlled to prevent exports to potential enemies.

Special interest groups have used national-security argument to limit competition. Such argument may not be valid because the "potential enemy" may simply find other sources of supply or may develop its own. Furthermore, we should import such raw materials and supplies to conserve our own resources to be used in time of war.

A STRATEGY FOR A NEW TRADE REFORM POLICY

There are two approaches for a strategy to be followed to reform our trade policy. First, the U.S. must regain its competitive edge in high-tech industry. Second, improve our trade deficits and promote exports.

U.S. Leadership in High-Tech Industries.

Regaining our World leadership position in high-tech industries, may only be accomplished by a coordinated effort, and national committment, from the federal government, industrial and business leaders and educators. Our strategic long-range plan should include the following elements:

- Encouraging basic research and promoting joint commercial research and innovation in high-tech industry. For example, the U.S. has given support for a manufacturing consortium of American chip maker called "Sematech".[5] The Federal Government would play a major role in financing, and in coordinating the efforts of Sematech, to pool the resources of semiconductor industry. Such efforts, it is hoped, would result with technological innovations, and the development of new products. Government involvement in such a scale would help our high-tech industries to regain its competitive edge in the long-run, and would certainly overcome the Japanese threat for the next decade.

- Increasing the financial support for various foundations for basic research (i.e N.S.F.). Increasing the number of scholarships for students majoring in science and engineering.

- Providing incentives for American Companies to study and adopt foreign technology-to avoid reinventing the wheel.[6]

- Encouraging investment in plant and equipments for new technology, through tax investment credit.

- Revising our antitrust laws, to encourage coordination among various industries to improve productivity and to penetrate world market.[7] A case in point, when the U.S. government allowed U.S. oil companies to coordinate their efforts with oil consuming countries in Europe, to face the threat of the oil producing countries' cartel during the oil embargo. Such action by the government should not result in an industrial monopoly and eliminate competition from our economy.

- Establishing a technology exchange policy. This would facilitate a transfer of the latest dual-use technologies to American companies-essentially, a reverse technology transfer (such an arrangement has already been negotiated with the Japanese).[8]

- Following the same Japanese strategy of sacrificing short-term profits for long term market share. To penetrate Japanese markets, as explained by Alden, "Some American Companies have been successful, by overcoming legal and regulatory barriers, and then overcoming cultural and social barriers. Other American companies should learn from their experience, he added."[9]

- Correcting our huge budget deficit, and increasing our national saving.

- Improving our educational system by ". . .making college education more selective and using the savings to beef up elementary and secondary schools."[10]

Improve U.S. Trade Deficits and Promote Exports.

This policy has two elements. Negotiating with our partners in trade and major allies bilateral and multilateral agreements, and imposing duties and quotas in cases of unfair foreign trade practices. These two elements function simultaneously and in an overlaping manner. For example, after signing a bilateral agreement between Japan and the U.S. to promote fair competition among semiconductor manufacturers, the U.S. may impose high tariffs on Japanese electronic imports for noncompliance. Sanctions would remain in place until the U.S. would have had evidence that the agreement was being fully implemented. The semiconductor agreement with Japan was designed to prevent dumping in either the U.S. or Third Countries, and to enhance sales opportunities in Japanese market for foreign-base producers (i.e. American producers to gain access to Japanese market-"reciprocity").[11] Japan did not fully implement this agreement, and continued to dump in Third Countries. American chip sales to Japan were not increasing. On March, 27, 1987, as mentioned earlier (p. 2), the U.S. announced that a 100% tariffs on a $300 million worth of Japanese electronic imports would be imposed by April 17, 1987. Of the $300 million, $135 million was determined to be the amount of damage caused by dumping chips, and $165 million the amount resulting from the inability of American companies to increase their penetration in Japan.[12] Finally, we must recognize that limiting Japanese imports by either imposing tariffs or through voluntary agreement could sometimes hurt and would not help our domestic industry. A case in point, on November, 1986, the Japanese "voluntarily" limited their exports of high-technology machine tools and numerically controlled lathes machines. Our domestic machine tools could not match the Japanese superior technology - capable of cutting to finer tolerances with high productivity.[13]

We are living in an era of global technological interdependence. We need to chart a balanced trade policy: To encourage the development of high-tech domestic industries and to establish a technology exchange policy with our trading partners. A policy based upon trust, negotiation and cooperation, and not upon protectionism, confrontation and retaliation.

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE SIXTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGES AND COMMUNICATION FOR WORLD BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

PART V.

BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL ENGLISH FOR SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES

310

THE ROLE OF LANGUAGE IN NATIONAL AND MULTINATIONAL ENTERPRISES IN TAIWAN

by

Dr. Bertha Du-Babcock and Dr. Richard D. Babcock
University of San Francisco

The Role of Language in National and Multinational Enterprises in Taiwan

Introduction

The multiplicity of language use has a constraining influence on the operation of international business. To a large degree, successful international business prectice depends on communication, and improved language skills can be a prime means of improving communication. Mr. Nokasona (1983), Japanese Prime Minister, attributed Japanese success in international business to Japanese businessmen possessing superior knowledge of culture and language of the foreign countries.

International communication has been recognized as the most striking potential problem when dealing in business with people whose languages differ from your own. In Taiwan, communication situations in most of the multinational corporations (MNCs) are, for example, foreign expatriates communicating with subordinates, or vise versa, subordinates communicating with other subordinates outside of Taiwan, the import-export firms communicating with the personnel of suppliers and buyers outside the counry, and so forth.

To improve the company productivity, there are a variety of training programs which can achieve the goal. Language training, however, is considered to be a good investment in international operations. Tenneco's example (Terpstra, 1986) demonstrates that language training is conducive to both subordinates and superiors to increase workers' motivation and morale. Knowing a foreign language needs to be considered as an inevitable factor to facilitate participation in the world economy. An effective language training program should (a) diagnose language proficiency in different language skills, and (b) tailor the program to meet the needs of each individual company in terms of their job requirement.

This paper describes the overall communication patterns that arise in four national-multinational corporations where more than one language is used the communication difficulties which occurred in these four companies. Based on the situations of language use and communication problems, the paper concludes with recommendations on the improvement of language and communication skills.

The Role of Languages in Four Companies

(The Use of Languages)

Texas Instruments (TI), a well-known American company, operates a manufacturing plant in Taipei County. Of the four companies, Chinese personnel of TI possess the highest second-language communicative proviciency. The relatively high level of English proficiency is related to the company hiring policy and the frequencies and needs of using English in task-related communicacation. As a company hiring policy, all exempt personnel must possess basic English language competency, both written and oral. Another factor is the frequency of using a second language (English) in task-related communication with other TI personnel outside of Taiwan. In TI, the reciprocal work relationships with overseas non-Chinese speaking personnel dictate that Chinese personnel conduct work-related communication, of course, in English. Consequently, the TI work environment is characterized by individuals who have an initial command of English and whose language proficiencies are maintained through work relationships with English speaking personnel.

There are counter-pull factors that are concurrently both increasing and retarding the English proficiencies. The increasing factor is external to the immediate Taiwanese work environment. In TI, Chinese personnel from first-level engineers to mid-to-upper-level managers had to integrate their technical work projects with other TI engineering, research, manufacturing, and marketing personnel outside Taiwan. The accommodating language in all these communications is English. However, with the decreased number of English speakers and increased number of Chinese personnel in managerial positions which has taken place in the sixteen years TI has been in Taiwan, there is an informal pressure to communicate more and more in Chinese in TI's internal operation. The Chinese personnel profess their desire to improve their English skills, but there is a strong tendency to use their first language. In TI, the challenge is to maintain and to develop second language skills. These second language skills are essential to achieving efficient integration of Taiwanese operations with those of other TI facilities around the world.

Kaohsiung Monomer Co., Ltd. (KMC) is a joint venture of British multinational corporation ICI and Chinese government run chemical and petroleum corporations. In this joint venture, the top level manager (GM) is English. Sixty out of 80 Chinese personnel are factory workers. These factory personnel have extremely limited second language skills. Company policies and memos are either translated into or written in Mandarin before these written communications are transmitted to these personnel. When the English speaking GM walks around the plant, he is limited to the most basic conversations because of the mutual lack of second language skills.

The office staff, consisting of five managers and technical personnel and six secretaries, possess a fairly good command of English. The written communication is primarily conducted in English except for informal memos. Only the financial manager who maintains relationships with Chinese banks reports that her correspondence was written or received in Chinese.

The office personnel regularly transact their work in Chinese and English. Oral communication is mostly in Chinese or Taiwanese, while written work is mostly in English. KMC managers, engineers, and secretaries have high-level written language skills which are refined and continually developed in day-to-day work relationships. The oral English abilities are latent, as these personnel do not get frequent practice in speaking English while at work.

Bank of America (BOA), a well-known American bank, serves both multinational firms and Chinese firms. The loan division makes approximately 70% of its loans to Chinese clients. While the paperwork is in English and Chinese, the oral communication with Chinese clients is, of course, Chinese. The Chinese loan officers, 40% having American MBA degrees, both speak and write English; these same officers, however, do not conduct most of their day-to-day business-tasks in English, except for the loan approval meeting. As with KMC, these Chinese personnel have latent English language oral skills.

The loan division environment can be characterized as a dominant Chinese language environment with an overlay of English. In this environment, the Chinese receive enough practice in spoken English to maintain but not to improve their English skills. On the other hand, written English proficiencies are refined and developed through task-related demands.

Cheng-Yia International Corporation (CYIC) is a family-owned Chinese export firm, producing electrical cord and wiring. The company's internal language, both written and oral, is Chinese. Some company personnel, however, possess foreign language skills because of the firm's external relationships.

Out of 150 employees, only export managers, production managers and secretaries have English language competencies. The company hiring policy is to hire individuals with English language competency that is required for their positions. In interacting with Japanese customers and suppliers, interpreters are used to complete the communication requirements.

Although the environment can be characterized as overwhelmingly Chinese, English language skills are still needed in sensitive positions. The firm's external relationships dictate the use of foreign languages, mainly English and Japanese.

Conclusions and Recommendations

English education in Taiwan, in general, provides students with ome reading comprehension and basic writing skills, but not oral/

aural skills. With this kind of practice, the language training needs to focus on three dimensions: (a) development of skill levels, (b) situational information about language use, (c) development of communication skills to communicate effectively with superiors and peers.

(a) Development of Skill Levels

Of four language skills, the development of listening skills has revealed an ever-increasing attention in language teaching. Pedagogically, listening comprehension skills need to be singled out because, to some extent, the acquisition of other skills will not automatically lead to aural comprehension (Weissenrieder, 1987). Much experimental work in second language acquisition, such as that of Krashen, suggests that listening comprehension is inevitable to production skills. Surprisingly, Belasco (1981) noted that students who are relatively fluent in terms of production are often lost when they find themselves on the other side of the communicative act. Effective communication has to be a two-way channel.

To build up listening comprehension skills for those mid-to upper-level managers, it is suggested that radio and T.V. broadcasting on newsbriefs or some other special occasions may be helpful to broaden their acoustic training. Pedagogically, Oller and Oller's (1983) cyclical treatment was found to be helpful in making input more comprehensible. This method breaks down the whole passage into several cycles. Students are asked to focus on one or two simple perception or comprehension tasks in each of several listenings. With the aid of instructor guidance, each cycle builds on the knowledge accumulated in the previous cycle until ultimate comprehension goals have been achieved.

As for the development of oral proficiency, semi-controlled or guided topic discussion can be conducive to the Chinese personnel. The topics can be current events, sports, and task-related. The purpose of training is to improve not only their spoken English, but also their communication skills, such as debating, agreeing, etc.

Writing skills is another important area of language skills which needs to be emphasized in the language training. With the basic command of grammatical competence, most Chinese personnel should be able to handle internal company memos. However, writing of technical project reports, internal progress reports to foreign expatriates or division heads, and minutes and progress reports to the headquarters may create a communication problem. Writing is one way of reflecting logical thinking. With the different ways of logical thinking between Chinese and Americans, non-native speakers may interpret the writing differently. Designing a language course to tackle the problem of how to write business letters, technical reports in general, and to emphasize the style of different corporations in specific may be useful. For example, in TI, the writing skill should focus on engineering report writing and formatting; whereas in KMC, the emphasis should be on minutes, office operation and monthly reports to the headquarters. In CYIC, the stress should be on the English business correspondence.

(b) Situational Information About Language Use

Language learning is not complete when the content of a grammatical syllable has been mastered (Wilkins, 1979). Knowledge of language development based on linguistic competence fails to fulfill the communicational needs because of its lack of situational relevance. For those Chinese personnel in mid- to upper-levels of managerial positions, they may have a considerable practical command of grammatical structures, but such linguistic competence may be inadequately related to what is needed in the situation. A situational syllabus may be valuable to meet the needs of individual companies to enable Chinese personnel to handle language situations.

(c) Developments of Communication Skills (Sociolinguistic Competence) To Effectively Communicate with Supervisors and Peers.

Sociolinguistic competence requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used: the role of the participants and the function of the interaction. Judgments of appropriateness involve more than knowing "what" to say in a situation and "how" to say it. For Chinese personnel, they may deliberately maintain a formal register or an academic style of speech in some situations where a familiar or informal register might be appropriate for native speakers. Thus, a language training program that employs sociolinguistic competence may be found to be conducive for Chinese personnel.

Language Training for Foreign Expatriates

Language training is important: this was the general consensus of the foreign expatriates. Language learning, however, for newly-arrived personnel in Taiwan is difficult. These personnel already have to adjust to a new environment--a new assignment and new country, and adding an ongoing language course under these circumstances may overburden some individuals. It is suggested that Chinese language training for English personnel can be arranged to provide an intensive course either before departure to the host country or after arriving in the host country. If the training is arranged after arrival, it is suggested that participants be separated from job and adjustment pressure. The content should focus on survival and basic conversation that is to be used for social purposes, such as greetings, phone number, address, monetary system, and "shopping language." It cannot be expected that the foreign expatriates would have the same fluency of the Chinese language as the Chinese personnel have in English. However, knowing the host country's language even a little bit would improve the rapport among employees. They would see the expatriate as one of "them" and would respect him or her more.

TEACHING MANAGERIAL SKILLS TO THIRD WORLD CIVIL SERVANTS: AN INSTRUCTOR'S PERSPECTIVE

by

Dana N. Lascu
Northern Illinois University

Title: Teaching Managerial Skills to Third World Civil Servants:
An Instructor's Perspective

Length: Twenty Minutes

Primary Audience: Business Educators

Abstract

Universities are increasingly diversifying their instructional activities into client-tailored short-term training programs. These programs are often very successful and have a high attendance rate - they are tapping into a substantial market. The attractiveness of this market is constantly drawing universities that are not quite prepared to face the challenge of training civil servants from the Third World.

This paper will look at the difficulties universities face when they are undertaking to train a diverse international group of middle and upper-level civil servants. It will stress the need for instructors to achieve a balance in their lectures between describing the "state of the art" in one subject and prescribing ways in which the "state of the art" can be attained given the specific social and economic conditions in the Third World.

The paper will also discuss some of the contradictions that arise, for example, when the program participants indicate a preference for practical training instead of lecture - format training. When the instructor satisfies this preference, however, he or she may encounter resistance on the part of the participants who claim that their role is to direct and not, for instance, to work on the computer.

Lastly, the paper will discuss measures adopted by our institution to meet these challenges and to ensure the success of our international programs aimed at participants from developing countries.

MARYMOUNT PALOS VERDES COLLEGE
Rancho Palos Verdes, California 90274 • (213) 377-5501

ENGLISH FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES -- BUSINESS AND COMMERCE:
PROBLEMS AND OPPORTUNITIES IN THE ESL CLASSROOM

Dr. James J. Duran
Marymount College, Palos Verdes

"English for Special Purposes: Business and Commerce" has been taught at Marymount College, Palos Verdes, for a total of seven semesters since 1981, with a total enrollment of 89 students. A similar course, "English for Special Purposes: Science and Technology" has been taught at Marymount for a total of five semesters since 1979, with a total enrollment of 43 students. Students who have an interest in these subject areas must choose between the two courses, since credit can be given for one -- but not both -- of the two courses. The two courses are part of a larger English as a Second Language (ESL) Program at Marymount which includes three levels of 4-unit courses in ESL (ESL 100, 101, 102) as well as an intensive workshop (ESL 150) designed to give individualized instruction in the four basic communication skills. These courses are intended as preparation for the wide variety of liberal arts courses offered at Marymount College, a two-year college which prides itself on being "the only independent institution in Southern California devoted solely to the liberal arts and leading to an Associate in Arts Degree".

Students in ESP: Business and Commerce have come from a wide variety of backgrounds, with one shared characteristic -- all are non-native speakers of English with an interest in mastering the basic concepts of business and commerce within an English-language framework. For most of the students, their task is not that of fitting an English linguistic framework over a familiar world of work experienced already via their native language. Their task is instead that of developing a clear understanding of a relatively unfamiliar area of the world of work -- often on the basis of little "real-world" work experience -- while at the same time acquiring a terminological system from an unfamiliar language (English) to describe that world.

In accordance with Peter Strevens' taxonomy of English for Special Purposes (ESP) courses,[1] we might perhaps classify the ESP Business and Commerce course at Marymount as a "pre-experience educational ESP" course. Whether one could classify the course as "discipline-based" or as "school subject" ESP is less clear, since Strevens' use of the terms is not altogether clear to me. In terms of proficiency level in English, the course at Marymount is open to all students who have reached a level of ESL 101 or higher. The quantity of instruction is limited to three hours per week for a fourteen-week semester. The goal of the course is to impart a broad introduction to the world of business and commerce to students already able to function academically -- at least minimally -- through English.

Instruction in ESP Business and Commerce consists largely of discussion of subject matter and problems drawn from the textbook Business Concepts for English Practice by Barbara Dowling and Marianne McDougal. Students are also asked to give short reports of from three to five minutes in length on articles of special interest to them, taken from a wide range of business journals and newspapers. A visit to a small business -- preferably one engaged in international trade -- is being planned in order to give students a chance to talk directly with an entrepreneur about the problems of running a business in rapidly changing times and to get a sense of the "reality" of the world of trade and commerce.

The textbook seems to answer very well the needs of the ESL student exploring the business world for the first time. The major areas of business are examined in succession, with due emphasis being given to international trade, where appropriate. Linguistic exercises allow the student to become familiar with business terminology in a variety of ways. The main problem that the instructor encounters is that both instructor and students may assume that the students understand vocabulary items and phrases when in fact they do not. A little careful probing often reveals that the students are wide of the mark in their understanding of the items. The problem comes not with the items of general use long familiar to students in ESL courses, nor with items of highly restricted technical usage -- since in that case students will immediately ask "What does that mean?" The problem lies with the items which students think they understand. Here, strangely enough, we are not dealing with extended meanings of familiar items used in a more specialized way -- the instructor is usually on the alert for possible problems in that area -- but with items whose general phonetic shape seems familiar enough to the student, who then proceeds to attribute an odd set of semantic properties to the item -- e.g., interpreting "aptitude" as "attitude".

The oral reports of the students, planned for the second half of the course, should yield interesting student reactions as to the comprehensibility and inherent interest of a wide variety of periodicals. Here the instructor cannot assume a priori that periodical materials which American students would find easier will be as comprehensible to foreign learners of English. Periodicals written in "layman's English" meant to demystify the world of business and finance might contain such a high proportion of colloquialisms and slang expressions that the foreign student might prefer a more "cerebral" publication written in relatively technical but clear formal English.

In looking at the student enrollments for ESP Business and Commerce and for ESP Science and Technology, some interesting patterns emerge.[2]

A total of 89 students have enrolled in the seven semesters of ESP Business and Commerce taught since 1981, while only half that number (43 students) have enrolled in the five semesters of ESP Science and Technology taught since 1979. In terms of ethnic groups and cultural/geographical areas[3], Asians accounted for 76% of the students taking ESP Business and Commerce, but they accounted for only 25% of the students taking ESP Science and Technology. Students from the Middle East, on the other hand, accounted for 58% of the enrollment for ESP Science and Technology. Of the Middle Eastern students, a slightly larger percentage of students from Arabic-speaking countries enrolled in ESP Science and Technology than in ESP Business and Commerce (fifteen students as opposed to twelve, respectively), but the Iranian students showed an almost exclusive preference for ESP Science and Technology (ten students, versus one student in ESP Business and Commerce).

As mentioned above, students from Asian countries showed a marked preference for ESP Business and Commerce, with Japanese accounting for 47% of all students, while Chinese accounted for 13% (matching Arab students) and Koreans for 8%. On the other hand, Japanese students amounted to only a fifth of the students (nine students = 21%) enrolled in ESP Science and Technology, and not a single Chinese or Korean student has ever enrolled in the course.

In looking at the sex ratios of the students enrolled over the years in the two courses, one finds the same marked preponderance of male students in both courses (65% in ESP Business and Commerce; 65% in ESP Science and Technology). Within the ethnic groups, however, interesting differences again emerge. A majority of the Japanese students were male (two-thirds of the students in ESP Science and Technology, and 61% of the students in ESP Business and Commerce), and virtually all the Arab students in both courses were male, as were nearly all the Korean students enrolled in ESP Business and Commerce.[4] On the other hand, 60% of the Iranian students enrolled in ESP Science and Technology were female, as were two-thirds of the Chinese students enrolled in ESP Business and Commerce. Students from Spanish-speaking countries were evenly divided between male and female in ESP Science and Technology, but were largely male (62.5%) in ESP Business and Commerce.

As mentioned at the outset, few students in ESP Business and Commerce have had any work experience in their home countries, and few have a clear vocational goal for their post-baccalaureate years. The students are quite young; in the present ESP Business and Commerce course, their ages range from 19 to 21 years of age. A few have assisted their relatives in the family business, and a few intend to continue in the family business. In fact, it is remarkable how few intend to follow in the occupational footsteps of their mothers and fathers. Compounding the lack of experience in the world of work and the vagueness of career goals is the nearly universal lack of any occupational or career training through the native language in the home country. Only one student in the current course in ESP Business and Commerce -- a European -- has ever had vocational training. In that particular case, the student -- a Dutch male -- had received training through the German language in Switzerland. In terms of major and minor areas of study at Marymount College beyond their coursework in ESL, only two students mentioned a business-related major or minor. Most students thought simply that "it was a good thing to know something about the business world".

The instructor of ESP Business and Commerce, then, is faced with a number of challenges beyond more purely cultural and linguistic ones in presenting the subject matter of the course. On the cognitive/experiential side of the question, the instructor must help the student explore an occupational universe encompassing many cultures and continents. On the affective/motivational side of the matter, the instructor must somehow help the individual student find his or her way through a maze of personal career choices, since once one moves beyond the textbook, the personal career decisions that an international student must make -- and continue to make -- are daunting.

Stepping back now from the details of the program at Marymount, it seems appropriate to ask the question, "What is the relationship of a course like ESP Business and Commerce to other courses in an ESL curriculum -- which is itself embedded in a broader liberal arts curriculum?" ESP Business and Commerce differs from other ESL classes[5] in that it has a highly specific linguistic subject-matter content -- namely the universe of linguistic expressions and associated concepts that are characteristic of the world of business and commerce. Other ESL classes, on the other hand, may be subdivided on the basis of level of proficiency in English attained, or of the particular communication skill emphasized, but are otherwise free of any bias in terms of course content. Within the larger liberal arts curriculum, ESP Business and Commerce represents a bridge to the world of the social sciences and to the rapidly changing world of current affairs, rather than to the perhaps more universal and timeless verities of the more literature-oriented liberal arts curriculum.

In comparison to ESP Science and Technology and similar courses in an academic setting, ESP Business and Commerce shares a similar orientation and instructional approach, but differs sharply in its subject matter -- the latter dealing with the universe of discourse familiar to social scientists, the former with that of natural scientists. In comparison to vocational ESL (VESL), the setting, the backgrounds of the students, and student goals all sharply differentiate the course at Marymount from the vocational or professional preparation courses usually described in VESL literature. At Marymount, students are exploring possible career options as part of a process of self-development and broad education in a liberal arts framework; they are not preparing themselves to function in a highly specific work environment where language is primarily a tool for interaction in the work setting.

Turning to the instructional materials and other resources available for teaching, we have seen that ESP Business and Commerce is well supplied with good texts and an abundance of periodical literature. "Real-world" work situations in the form of local businesses engaged in international trade likewise abound in the Los Angeles area. The principal problem for the instructor is that of extending and deepening student awareness and experience of business situations and of the vast world of the global economy which forms the backdrop to even the small local business in the 1980's. As such awareness of, and empathy for, people involved in international business grows apace with the fascination with the intricacies of the dynamic world of international trade, one hopes that student motivation will be kindled and that the students themselves will at times take the lead in exploring that world and in charting their courses in that world. Here the individual student is the key.

FOOTNOTES

1. Peter Strevens, "The Teaching of English for Special Purposes", in Strevens, Orientations in the Teaching of English, Oxford University Press, New York, 1977, pp. 89-108.

2. It should be kept in mind that the students enrolled in the two courses represent mutually exclusive populations, since students can enroll for credit in one of the two courses, but not both

3. See charts in Appendices A and B.

4. This reflects the student population from the Arabic-speaking countries and from Korea at the school.

5. Here we exclude ESP Science and Technology from consideration for the moment.

APPENDIX A: ENROLLMENT IN ESP BUSINESS AND COMMERCE

Overall Enrollment

Year	Male	Female	Total
1981	4	4	8
1982	12	3	15
1983	13	4	17
1984	7	2	9
1985	8	5	13
1986	7	9	16
1987	7	4	11
	58	31	89

Enrollment by Ethnic Group

	Male	Female	Total
Japanese	26	16	42
Chinese	4	8	12
Korean	6	1	7
Thai	1	2	3
Indonesian	3	1	4
Arab	12	-	12
Iranian	1	-	1
Hispanic	5	3	8
Dutch	1	-	1
Swiss	-	2	2

APPENDIS B: ENROLLMENT IN ESP SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Overall Enrollment

Year	Male	Female	Total
1979	9	5	14
1980	5	-	5
1981	6	1	7
1982	3	4	7
1983	5	5	10
	28	15	43

Enrollment by Ethnic Group

	Male	Female	Total
Japanese	6	3	9
Chinese	-	-	-
Korean	-	-	-
Thai	-	-	-
Indonesian	-	2	2
Arab	14	1	15
Iranian	4	6	10
Hispanic	3	3	6
Dutch	-	-	-
Swiss	-	-	-
Vietnamese	1	-	1

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Dr. James J. Duran received his Ph.D. in Linguistics from Stanford University in 1975, after receiving an M.A. in African Studies from Duquesne University in Pittsburgh, and an M.A. in Linguistics from Michigan State University in East Lansing. His dissertation research at Stanford University and in East Africa centered on problems of language planning in an African context. He has had a strong interest in the practical problems of teaching languages as diverse as Spanish, Irish Gaelic, and Swahili. Dr. Duran was the first coordinator of Stanford University's Special Language Program, under which as many as 17 classes in 14 languages have been taught in a single academic year. Dr. Duran now teaches English as a Second Language at Marymount College, Palos Verdes, and at West Los Angeles College.

ENGLISH FOR DIPLOMATS

Richard B. Noss

Diplomatic Language Services
Arlington, Virginia

ENGLISH FOR DIPLOMATS

"English for Diplomats" is a new ESP course being developed and tried out in Washington, D.C. The course has two levels. The first level is aimed at non-native speakers of English with threshold proficiency (S-1, R-1 in terms of the FSI scale) and is primarily intended to prepare them for the second level (entry requirement S-2+, R-2+). The second level consists of six modules, and is aimed exclusively at personnel in the diplomatic services of non-English-speaking countries, plus those intending to join such services.

The ten units that make up the first level of "English for Diplomats" are each designed for one week's intensive instruction (30 hours), plus homework assignments, for classes of three to eight students of average aptitude. Assessment instruments are provided at the end of each unit, and at the end of the first level; these can also be used by teacher/managers to place students or whole classes at the proper entry point in the course. Student materials for each unit, besides the usual classroom materials, include self-instructional grammar and vocabulary components (which the teacher may also elect to teach). Separately provided for teacher/managers are guidelines for native and non-native teachers, suggested techniques for different kinds of classes, a set of audio tapes that go with various units, homework assignments, and the assessment instruments.

The six modules of the second level of the course are designed for one to three weeks instruction each. This part of the course is based on guidelines from the Foreign Service Institute, U.S. Department of State, for the development of its own (foreign-language only) modules for American specialists in various overseas diplomatic functions. The modules cover consular work, diplomatic representation, political and economic reporting, public and cultural affairs (including mass media affairs), and administration and security. The choice of which modules to teach, of course, depends entirely on the needs of the students. Both the content and the methodology are geared to students who have successfully completed the first-level course or its equivalent.

It is envisioned that "English for Diplomats," when the course is completed and published, will be used in three kinds of institutions: binational centers, university English departments and language centers, and private language schools. Demand for the course has come mainly from Third World countries, and the likelihood is that the course will be taught overseas much more often than in English-speaking countries.

Rationale for the Course

English is now the working language in a great majority of the cities around the world where diplomats are assigned. With the possible exception of Latin America, English is an indispensable tool on all continents, not only for diplomats in the strict sense, but also for attachés, technical advisers, commercial representatives, aid program administrators, information officers and mass media specialists, delegates and staff members of international organizations. Even in the more traditional areas of free-world diplomacy, English has made enormous gains, mainly at the expense of French. China, the Soviet bloc countries, and a majority of Third World countries now regard English as the foreign language of primary emphasis, not only for diplomats but also for many other kinds of specialists and for the general public. Even in cities and countries where English is not the principal working language, for example in Latin America and the "francophone" countries, English is still apt to be a widely used lingua franca.

The United States, the Soviet Union, Japan, and the larger European countries can afford to recruit or train diplomats and area specialists in many different foreign languages and cultures, and assign them to their geographical areas of competence over significant periods of time. (The U.S. Department of State has been criticized for shortcomings in this regard, but through its Foreign Service Institute it has in fact trained large numbers of specialists in more than thirty languages; assignment, promotion, and retention of the officers is the real problem.) Moreover, the larger countries can maintain and staff very large embassies and consulates where necessary. This means that language requirements can be matched more efficiently to job descriptions -- for example, an economic officer may need to know only a world language like French, German, or Spanish, while a political or consular officer may need to know a local language as well; an administrative officer may be able to do his job entirely in English, and so on. This gives personnel managers some flexibility, not only in immediate assignments to posts but also in designating officers for language training as part of their career development.

Smaller countries, on the other hand, and countries with low budgets for foreign operations (this includes the majority of Third World countries) do not enjoy such luxuries. They cannot fund and operate Foreign Service Institutes or their equivalents, but must usually depend on their public education systems both for the recruitment and the training of their staff. More importantly, perhaps, the smaller countries cannot afford to maintain large missions overseas. In all too many cases the economic and political officer, the consul, and the administrative officer of the preceding paragraph are in fact embodied in a single person. Such a many-hatted diplomat may also serve as military attaché, press officer, intelligence station chief, student adviser, and trade representative for his country.

This means that prospective diplomats from small countries with low budgets for foreign affairs cannot possibly be expected to master all the languages they might need to use during their careers. But they must at least be competent enough in one language (besides their own) to use it in many different functions, corresponding to the many "hats" they will wear during their careers. That language, logically, is English. But there is a further irony here. It is precisely the Third World professional who has mastered one or more world languages and who operates smoothly in the international community that is most in demand among United Nations agencies and other international organizations. The professional's home country can hardly compete, in terms of salary and other inducements, with such organizations. Consequently there is a continuous drain of prospective diplomats -- even of those trained at their own government's expense.

The need for a course like "English for Diplomats" is thus quite plain. The question should be asked, however, whether existing general English and ESP courses could not easily meet that need. After all, many of the functions of a consular or embassy officer are not very different from those of an overseas businessman. The difference here is a subtle but real one: the diplomat, unlike the businessman, must always represent his country, in all the senses of the word. He may be involved in selling its products overseas, promoting tourism to his country, and otherwise engaging in commercial activities, but there are cultural and political sides to his work which are not the normal concerns of the businessman. In fact, of the six modules of the second level of "English for Diplomats," only those on economic reporting and administration really overlap with Business English courses. The modules on consular work, representation, political reporting, and cultural affairs are geared to functions peculiar to the diplomatic service.

As for the first level of the course, it could be argued that there is considerable overlap with existing intermediate ESL and EFL general-purpose courses. But again there is a significant difference. Most such existing courses are intended for relatively young students and prospective employees who need English for their further education or career advancement. But the typical diplomat is older and has a higher status. He is more like a teacher than a student, and more like a boss than an employee. To give some examples, many English courses have units or lessons designed to help the learner do well in an interview; in this course, the learner conducts the interview. The typical English student rents a room in a hotel, orders a meal in a restaurant, and arranges travel for himself. In the first level of "English for Diplomats" the learner rents a suite of offices, hosts a banquet, and arranges transportation and accommodation for a whole delegation.

Another characteristic of intermediate English courses in general is that they assume that the learner will be operating in an English-speaking country (for example, as a university student in the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, Australia, or New Zealand) or working for an English-dominated company (for example, a multinational corporation). Neither assumption is particularly relevant to the intending diplomat, who will always be working for an organization that conducts its real business in another language, who receives his instructions and writes his reports in that language, and who may never set foot in an English-speaking country during his entire career. The cultural milieu which "English for Diplomats" assumes is the international community, not the community of native English speakers. In the larger cities of the world where English is the principal working language, or a widely used lingua franca, the foreign diplomat deals with many others for whom English is likewise a second language. And in such a community the foreign diplomat is one of the players, not one of the pawns.

"English for Diplomats" statts at the intermediate level, with this kind of focus. The reason for not including a beginning-level component in the course is twofold. First, the content of a series of units designed to bring the learner to a threshold level (S-1, R-1) in English would not be substantially different from that of a good many existing courses. Second, experience has shown that most intending diplomats have in fact already achieved the threshold level -- usually through academic study of English in their own countries. (In many cases, the passive control of English, and especially of its vocabulary and its written modes, exceeds this level.)

In summary, the rationale for "English for Diplomats" rests on two principal needs:

(1) the need for an intermediate course that takes into account the age, position, and likely responsibilities of the learner, and the fact that he will be operating in an English-speaking milieu but not necessarily in an English-speaking country;

(2) the need for a professional course that emphasizes all the typical communication contexts and functions of the diplomatic service.

Characters and Settings

Reflecting the rationale for the course, the characters and settings of "English for Diplomats" are not confined to the United States or to other English-speaking countries. The international contexts in which English is a working language or a lingua franca have certain common characteristics, and these are exploited in both levels of the course. For example, on the social side, most large cities of the world have international clubs to which diplomats belong, and both the business and social activities of such clubs are often conducted in English. On the professional side, meetings and conferences of an international nature that are held all over the world normally use English as one of the working languages. The omnipresent English mass media -- press, radio, television, films, records, videos, and data banks -- serve both as sources of information for the diplomat and as channels for promoting his own country's interests.

The settings for communication in English, in both levels of the course, are distributed over all five continents and the major archipelagos. Some settings are identified as to geographical location, and others are placed in mythical countries (e.g. "Borania") which clearly belong to the Third World but which no student is obliged to defend, praise, or feel loyalty towards. On the other hand, the student's own nation (identified in the text materials as "The Country of Somewhere") is never the setting of communication events but is constantly talked about, because that is one of the responsibilities of the diplomat. Certain typical cities, such as those for which maps are provided in the student materials, recur again and again in the progression of the course. Travel schedules, however, are planned when possible with reference to real airline, train, and bus schedules, with costs being figured at current fare levels.

Like the settings, the principal characters of "English for Diplomats" figure in many different situations. Certain stock characters are generic and fictitious -- they do not represent any particular country but speak real languages. Native speakers of English, however, are usually identified as to country of origin; this is because, when their voices are heard on tapes, they will betray their national origins in any case. Recurrent characters (referred to in the text as "Mr. and Mrs. Commonname") are a couple who represent the student's own country. Although they speak English, students are responsible for adapting the rest of their behavior to national customs.

Not all the characters are fictitious. Each student, during the course, is gradually required to build up a dossier on himself. When he becomes a role player in certain situations, he plays himself and must adhere to the facts given in the dossier, which in some cases are also made available to other role-players. Occasionally, teachers, managers, and administrators from the institution where the course is given (whether native speakers of English or not) are asked to play roles, and one type of role involves playing themselves.

The varieties of English in the printed texts and on the tapes are likewise not confined to native varieties. Although an international standard of English is maintained throughout the course, it is neither clearly American nor clearly British. (This is true of spelling, pronunciation, lexical choice, and even some grammatical features.) Voices on the tapes include all sorts of accents, both native and non-native. The reason for this is that the intending diplomats, at some stage of their careers, will probably be exposed to many different accents and varieties of English. They must be able to deal with this range of variation at least on a comprehension level.

In terms of types, rather than national origins, the characters in the course include diplomats, military personnel, businessmen and trade representatives, local politicians and civil servants, mass media representatives, office, domestic, and service workers, tradesmen and retailers, non-working husbands and wives of officials, and ordinary citizens. The settings, apart from their geographical location, include the following:

embassies, consulates, and other diplomatic missions
international organizations and multinational firms
local government and business offices
post offices, airports, railroad stations, and travel offices
private residences and apartments
clubs, hotels, restaurants, theaters, and sports arenas

retail stores and repair shops

Every effort has been made, in short, to include all the major settings where the diplomat may need to use English, and to people them with characters he is likely to have to communicate with.

The First Level Components

The first level of "English for Diplomats" is primarily designed to bring the learner from the threshold level of proficiency in English (S-1, R-1) to the point where he can profit from training in one or more of the professionally-oriented modules of the second level (entry requirement S-2+, R-2+). The content of the first part of the course, however, is relevant not only to prospective diplomats, attachés, and cultural officers, but also to businessmen, media representatives, and others who serve overseas in a private capacity. The communicative tasks and areas are geared to life and work in typical diplomatic posts where English is either the principal working language or widely used lingua franca. As we have seen in the preceding section, this means that host-country settings, characters, and situations are not confined to the United States and other English-speaking countries.

There are ten units in the first level. Each unit is designed for one week's intensive instruction (30 hours), plus homework assignments, for a class of three to eight students of average aptitude. The components of the typical unit are as follows.

(a) Classroom materials (for students and teachers):

Situation descriptions, dialogues, charts, maps, graphs, diagrams, pictorial stimuli, sample texts, reading passages, schedules, outlines, role descriptions, agendas, want ads, personal dossiers, etc.

(b) Self-instructional materials (for students):

Vocabulary and grammar exercises and explanations which are especially relevant to each unit. (The materials are designed for self-study, but the course instructor may elect to assign them, or even teach them himself if he deems it necessary.)

(c) Teacher materials:

Overall guidelines for native and non-native instructors, suggested techniques for different kinds of classes, specific objectives of each unit, detailed sample lesson plans for each day; audio tapes, homework assignments, and assessment instruments.

The themes of the ten units of the first leval are as follows:

1. Static Visual Information. The student must learn to understand and produce descriptions giving absolute and relative locations, using colors, shapes, sizes, numbers, and groupings of persons and objects. Visual stimuli and expected student products include diagrams, maps and charts, photographs and drawings, room plans, graphs, national flags, symbols, and monuments.

2. Process Description. Students move away from static stimuli to understand and produce accounts of processes and events in the future and the past -- transportation routes, instructions for assembling equipment, agendas for meetings, and the like. The situations include giving instructions and directions, planning itineraries and action sequences (for example, car maintenance, training programs), narrating past events and briefing people on future events.

3. Telephone Use I. This is the first of two units dealing with the telephone. The emphasis is on telephone etiquette in English, relaying messages, and making appointments and reservations by phone. Much of the content of Units 1 and 2 recurs here, with the difference

being that the two communicators cannot see each other and must refer to shared visual aids only verbally, without being able to point, trace lines on maps, and so forth. Situations include booking airline reservations, giving directions to a lost traveler, getting an estimate for car repairs, and dealing with a foreign student problem.

4. Public Speaking. Students progress from speaking with a fully prepared text through speaking from notes to truly extemporaneous speaking, both in social and business-related contexts. Speech topics include a description of the student's own country (for tourism promotion), after-dinner remarks, introducing a colleague who will address a group, farewell remarks on leaving a post, and briefing a group of visitors. Towards the end of the unit, various narrative, descriptive, and persuasive topics are designated for students to present extemporaneously.
5. Interview Techniques. Students learn strategies to make the most of their limited English in face-to-face interaction. Situations include being interviewed by the media, interviewing prospective employees (office and domestic), and simple forms of bargaining. The content of previous units is built upon here, with students being required to answer and frame questions in both familiar and unfamiliar areas.
6. Telephone Use II. This unit moves toward more sophisticated uses of the telephone, such as making and breaking business appointments, arranging a meeting involving participants who are at different locations, offering, accepting, and declining social invitations, seeking and giving information, and bargaining by phone. Specific situations also include following up on a car accident with calls to police and insurance agents, renting offices and living quarters, and arranging a reception.

7. Meetings and Conferences. Students sharpen their speaking, listening, and note-taking skills (and to some extent also their scanning and skimming skills) as they progress from scheduled speaking at meetings and briefing sessions to participating in group discussions and conferences, and finally to leading or chairing meetings. In this unit, students play various roles in reconstructing a monthly meeting of a club with international membership -- from determining the agenda through conducting the meeting to writing and approving the minutes.
8. Advanced Social Skills. The content includes formulas used in reception lines, small talk at luncheons, cocktail parties, and dinners, and the hosting of such events. What to say in unpleasant as well as pleasant situations is practiced. The assessment for this unit requires the student to plan and host a (simulated) social event for students and/or faculty of his institution.
9. Advanced Office Skills. Students gather information from various sources (oral and written), learn to outline and summarize for presenting an argument or giving detailed instructions to employees. Specific tasks include office meetings with commercial representatives (both buying and selling), handling a visiting professional delegation, writing efficiency reports for foreign employees (and firing one of them), and preparing an official report (presumably to be written in the student's own language) from various English-language sources.
10. Review Unit. This unit pulls together the many threads introduced in the first nine units, through complex situations that may be encountered by the diplomat overseas. It is intended to complete the "bridge" to the specialized English modules that will follow, at the second level. Tapes and texts from previous units are re-used in different ways. The assessment for Unit 10 can serve as a placement test for candidates who have not completed the first level but are apparently proficient enough in English to enter the second level directly.

The Second Level Components

Work on the second level of "English for Diplomats" is still in the planning stage. This part of the course will consist of six modules covering the most important functions of diplomats overseas. (The content will correspond closely to that of foreign-language courses, at the same level, that are now being developed at the Foreign Service Institute in the major world languages, starting with French.) Each module is designed for one to three weeks of intensive instruction, but can be taught over a longer period of time if necessary. The selection of which modules to offer, of course, will depend entirely on the needs of learners who have attained the entrance-level proficiency in English (at least S-2+, R-2+).

Many of the principal characters, settings, and themes found in the first-level course will be further developed in these professional modules. As in the case of the first ten units, the progression will always be from passive to active skills and from fixed to free communication contexts. The methodology and techniques suggested for the earlier units will also be continued here, at least for classes of three to eight students, so that the same teachers can follow through in this respect, even though much of the course content may be new to them.

The modules currently being planned are the following.

I. Consular Work. The emphasis here will be on visa applications and other consular services which bring the diplomat into direct contact with the host-country public. Some additional content, however, will cover those occasions when the consular officer must negotiate with local officials on behalf of citizens of his own country.

II. Diplomatice Representation. Although representing his country's formal interests is normally the responsibility of an Ambassador or a Chief of Mission, many junior officers find themselves in the position of having to present credentials, deliver protests or démarches, negotiate at a high level, host national day celebrations, or perform other official acts of representation. The social aspects of these functions will be stressed in the module, along with the formal aspects.

III. Political Reporting. This is an area in which every diplomat, regardless of his assigned roles, must be able to function to some degree. While overseas he serves as the eyes and ears of his country, covering everything from hard intelligence to cocktail circuit rumors. Since the actual political reports will probably be written in the diplomat's own language, the emphasis in this module will be on gathering information through various channels and organizing it, not on the writing of actual finished reports.

IV. Economic Reporting. This module will be structured analogously to the preceding one, but with an emphasis on business, tourism, banking, foreign aid programs, and trade negotiations. Economic reporting at both the national and the international levels will be featured.

V. Public and Cultural Affairs. Here, the functions common to organizations like the United States Information Agency, the British Council, and L'Alliance Française will be stressed: public affairs, mass media, cultural presentations, educational exchanges and student counseling, international sports competitions, and binational centers, for example. In terms of skills and contexts, the emphasis will be almost the reverse of that in the "reporting" modules -- that is, the learner will be promoting his own culture rather than gathering information about a foreign nation and its political and economic climate.

VI. Administration and Security. This module will be a logical extension of the first-level course, in the sense that it will sharpen skills in office and personnel management, housekeeping, finance, logistics, security, and other contexts in which the diplomat must deal with host-country nationals and the international community in English. These areas, all of which are touched on in various units of the first level, will be broadened to reflect the concerns of officers responsible for the management and protection of overseas installations -- not only embassies and consulates, but also aid and trade missions, information and cultural centers, and so on.

The components of each of the six modules -- classroom materials, self-study and teacher materials -- will be analogous to those of the first-level units, with the exception that there will be more emphasis on vocabulary and less on grammar.

Program Management

As mentioned earlier, "English for Diplomats" will probably be taught overseas more often that it is taught in the United States (or in any other English-speaking country). The institutions most likely to offer the course are binational centers that already have English language programs, university English departments and language centers, and private language schools. Some of these institutions will have instructors who are native speakers, but not all these native speakers will necessarily have had TESL/TEFL training and experience. The likelihood is that the typical instructor will be a non-native speaker of English who has had some training, along with considerable experience in teaching other kinds of English courses to citizens of his own country.

Although the course is designed for intensive learning, those institutions that cannot mount an intensive program could still consider offering the course. A time-block of two contact hours, however, would seem to be an absolute minimum, if the training sessions are to be stretched over a longer period.

The management of a program offering "English for Diplomats" (first level, second level, or both) will be considerably simplified by the design of the course itself. This is because the conditions and problems of teaching English overseas have been largely anticipated. We can now summarize the special features of the course with a view to program management.

Student selection and placement are simplified by the assessment instruments included in the first level. While it would be desirable to have a valid, reliable English proficiency rating for each prospective student, this is not always possible. Another way of judging whether a student is ready for the first level is to adminster the assessment from Unit 1. A student who scores badly on this test is probably not ready for any part of the course. For the second level, the assessment from Unit 10 can be the criterion. In a large program, new students who fall somewhere between these two criteria can be slotted into existing first-level classes, without having to wait for a new cycle to begin.

Class size is also a factor which gives the program manager some flexibility. The course is not designed to be taught one-on-one, but three students are enough to start a class. The maximum recommended class size is eight, which allows for streaming of slower and faster groups in large programs. Even within single classes some streaming is possible, because the teacher can assign self-instructional or preparatory activities to certain students while he works with smaller groups or individuals.

Teacher selection and placement is facilitated by the course design, which makes team teaching a distinct possibility. For example, an institution which has both native and non-native instructors would do well to consider this option. A natural division of labor is suggested by the fact that the progression, in each unit or module, is always from passive to active skills, and from fixed to free persormance on the part of the students. (Native speakers are often in a better position to judge speaking and writing performance that is not closely structured.)

Teacher guidance is also flexible. There are separate guidelines for native and non-native speakers, and for inexperienced teachers detailed lesson plans are provided. Since the teacher materials include suggested homework assignments, self-instructional materials, and assessment instruments, all instructors can feel free to select the balance between teaching and managing the course which suits them best.

Program costs are minimized by the nature of the course. Because all student materials are provided (except those produced by the students themselves and those to be sampled from local mass media output by teachers and/or students), the institution needs only to provide a small classroom equipped with a tape recorder for each class. A single instructor who is well trained in TESL/TEFL will suffice; he does not need to be a native speaker.

Evaluation is facilitated by the clearly stated objectives at the beginning of each first-level unit and each second-level module. If for some reason the institution wishes to do its own assessment, instead of using the instruments provided, the statements of objectives will make such evaluation possible. In addition, since both levels of the course are calibrated to standard English proficiency levels, external evaluation is also possible. A student completing the first level should test at S-2+, R-2+ on the FSI scale, or at about 500 on the TOEFL scale. A student completing at least two modules of the second level should test at S-3, R-3. (The TOEFL score may not increase, however, because of the highly specialized nature of the professional modules.)

In summary, the management of a program offering "English for Diplomats" is well within the capabilities of the typical U.S. language-teaching institution, and should not unduly strain the resources of an overseas binational center, a university English department or language center, or a competent private language school.

THE NEWSWEEK ECONOMICS PROGRAM IN BUSINESS ESL PROGRAMS

by

Dr. Joyce Gilmour Zuck
Ann Arbor, Michigan

Title: The NEWSWEEK Economics Program in Business ESL Programs

Language: English
Audience: Both ESL and Business Educators
Time: 30 minutes or more if possible

The Newsweek Education Program consists of teaching materials which are designed to give background to texts in the current issues of Newsweek magazine. In the Economics Program, the supplementary materials for 1986-87 include five resource units such as "Entrepreneurship in America", "Advertising: The Tool of Trade, and "Business and Consumer Economics"; a monthly wall map with a focus such as "Human Rights Around the World"; a media resource kit--"Trade and the U.S. Economy"; and a Teacher's Guide. Also available is the Newsworks II Software Program with data files on Geography, Military Conflict, and the U.S. Budget.

This presentation will be based on the issue of NEWSWEEK magazine closest to the conference dates. The procedure for developing a week's worth of lessons based on the current issue of Newsweek and the resources will be demonstrated.

Second language learners need to study from authentic texts in authentic ways. This rule of thumb underlies much of current ESL curriculum development. The authentic materials should be those that a student will have easy access to and be interested in reading. The access ensures that he will be able to continue the techniques for language development long after he has left the confines of more formal classroom teaching. Business people from various countries have access to NEWSWEEK and consider the content valuable to their professional development. They approach the texts in the publication in ways that encourage authentic question asking and use of the material.

The presentation will include an introduction to the basic concepts of authentic use of language. Then, the week of lessons will be illustrated. Finally, participants will be given one resource guide and one 3'x4' wall map so that they may try the materials in their own classrooms.

AN ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION AND ITS IMPACT ON BUSINESS PRACTICE IN TAIWAN

by

Dr. Bertha Du-Babcock and Dr. Richard D. Babcock
University of San Francisco

An Analysis of English Language Education and Its Impact on Business Practice in Taiwan

Bertha Du-Babcock Int'l., Sausalito, CA 94965, (415) 332-4207
Richard D. Babcock, University of San Francisco,
San Francisco, CA 94117 (415) 666-6483

Introduction

English-language education is of increasing importance in Taiwan because of two major factors: (a) more multinational corporations (MNCs) are setting up and also expanding operations in Taiwan, and (b) a large number of Chinese firms are exporting to English-speaking markets and, of large significance to the U.S., sourcing in the U.S.

The purpose of the study is to examine and analyze the efficiency of English-language education in Taiwan and specifically, its impact on firms doing business in Taiwan. The paper will summarize the results of case studies conducted in the Summer 1986 during June and July. This paper will be presented in three major sections. The first section will provide an introduction in English education in Taiwan and its major problems in English-language teaching in terms of curriculum design, material development, teaching methodologies, and teacher preparation. The second section then provides a summary of the basic findings of our research in the summer 1986. The same focus on reporting the situations of language use and the existence of communication difficulties among the four firms to illustrate the easy use in practical and real business world. Since each firm represents different nationalities and is in a different industry, the situations of language use and communication problems are varied. In this section, each firm will be discussed separately. This paper concludes with recommendations on language training and cross-cultural training programs to improve intercultural communication (these recommendations being designed to remedy the problem outlined earlier).

OVERVIEW OF ENGLISH EDUCATION IN TAIWAN

Introduction of English Education

In Taiwan all secondary-school students are required to take English. English-as-a-foreign language is a subject matter and studied from middle school throughout the high school. Students at middle school receive three hours instruction per week while high school students receive five hours a week. Unlike American school systems in which each school may play an active role in planning its own curriculum, schools in Taiwan must follow the curriculum outlined by National Bureau of Compilation and Translation.

Curricula in all of the subject matter and on different levels are stipulated and standardized by the Ministry of Education, a ministry which is in charge of the promotion and supervision of the nation's educational programs (China Yearbook, 1979, p. 107). Under the supervision of the Ministry of Education, the National Institute for Compilation and Translation, consists of committees for compilation and examination of textbooks, is responsible for the work of compilation, examination, inspection and translation of the textbooks and reference books for all levels of schools (China Yearbook, 1979, p. 257).

In the middle-school level, there is only one-version of English textbook for students in the nation; whereas, there are about three or four versions of high-school English textbooks available. Each high school has the right to choose its own textbook. Some high schools may choose two or three versions at one time and assign them to the students.

The content of the English textbook for beginning middle-school students mainly focuses on the phrases or dialogues for daily conversation. When the grades go on, the focus is on grammar. High-school English textbooks focus simply on reading comprehension and grammar. Aside from the stipulated English textbook, each school has to choose its own grammar textbook(s). As for students at college levels, Freshman English is required for all students at Junior Colleges and universities. Universities or even instructors can choose their own reading materials. The freshman-English textbooks are usually American-published freshman-English readings. The purpose of the freshman-English is to enhance students' reading comprehension and to appreciate the literature.

Major Problems

Despite the amount of time, effort, and resources devoted to the study of English in Taiwan; however, Taiwanese (Chinese) usually charcterize themselves as "poor speakers of English." Most Taiwanese can hardly acquire the skills in oral and written, especially oral, and hardly have confidence to use English in actual communication situations. The primary reasons for causing such difficulty are (a) the inappropriate curriculum design and material development; (b) the widespread use of the grammar-translation method in teaching English; (c) the shortage of pre-and-in-service teacher preparation; and (d) the inadequacy of evaluation or examination systems such as the entrance examination.

Planning the English curriculum in Taiwan has presented definite problems. The purpose of learning English in the secondary school is for college entrance examination; while in college the purpose is for job mobility and for enrichment. In recent years, there has been a considerable improvement in the quality of junior high-school English textbooks. In particular, the practice component of texts has become increasingly more dialogue-oriented which is based on the audio-lingual theory--to focus on the production of language use. Theory of "practice makes perfect" is integrated in the material of the first year of the English textbook. The curriculum design, however, begins to focus on reading and grammar and the standard grammatical base is the dominant organizational theme of the texts after the second year of English education throughout high school. Such inconsistency of curriculum development does cause problems in the learning of English.

Teaching methodology and teachers' English oral proficiency are the primary difficulty in causing ineffective English-language teaching in Taiwan. The grammar-translation method still dominates the whole language teaching field. According to the personal experience of being a teacher trainer in 1981, one of the authors was so astonished by those trainees' lack of English oral proficiency, despite coming from reputable middle or high schools and with 3 to 16 years of teaching experience. It was sort of discouraging that the major teaching is just a reproduction of bad tradition. Many trainees (teachers) just teach the way they were taught. It was (is) hard for teachers to motivate themselves to spend more time and effort to learn how to use new teaching methodology, especially when there is little tangible incentive for them to do so. Moreover, the lack of English oral proficiency may discomfort them and make them feel insecure in front of students.

The examination system is another major factor. Learning English is to prepare for entrance examinations. These examinations test knowledge of English, but they focus on translation and on point of grammatical competence; that is, to determine and express accurately the literal meaning of utterances (Swain & Canale, 1981, p. 49). For various reasons, these tests do not measure proficiency in spoken English. Students' final goal may be merely the passing of a university entrance-examinations, for which the mastery of paper-pencil tests and translations are required. In such a society like Taiwan, passing the examination is the priority, and that is the way people judge teachers' success.

The examination directs teaching and curriculum design. The Teacher's job is to teach students how to do well in the pencil-paper tests instead of teaching them how to use the language. Unfortunately, unless examinations change, grammar-translation teaching methods will be still "a necessary evil" for quite awhile.

Summary of Findings on the Situation of Language Use and the Existence of Communication Difficulties

Since the grammar-translation method has been used for decades, the majority of people in Taiwan graduate with an understandable command of English grammar and some reading comprehension. With such kind of practice, people in Taiwan hardly possess good command of oral proficiency in the English language. This is also confirmed and supported by our research in the summer of 1986 in which multi lingual language environments were studied. Communication patterns and language use were studied in 4 firms: Texas Instruments, Bank of America, Kaohsiung Monomer Co., Ltd., and Cheng-Yia International Corp. The major findings of the research is that communication difficulty was largely associated with spoken English. The following will explain the interaction of language use and communication difficulties among these four national-multinational firms operating in Taiwan.

In working environments like Texas Instruments (TI), second language skills are essential. Most Chinese personnel must integrate their technical work projects with other TI engineering, research, manufacturing, and marketing personnel outside Taiwan. The accommodating language in all these communications is English. As personnel down to the first-level engineers are involved in technical projects, the worldwide work-flow relationships inherently demand the use of English and consequently develop a force toward increasing English skills. Although TI Chinese personnel possess the highest English proficiency, TI is the firm that reputedly has the most communication difficulties. The major communication problems in TI are the situations such as weekly progress report, sharing technical information on the phone with other TI branches throughout the world, and immediate communication with superior about on-going project.

Unlike TI, the use of English in oral communication in Kaohsiung Monomer Co., Ltd. (KMC) is not as demanding and frequent as for TI Chinese personnel. However, the managerial and secretarial staff reported that about 85 to 90 percent of their correspondence is in English. Compared to their high frequent use of English in written communication, the spoken English is about 5 to 15 percent of business conversation. English is used at the weekly office meeting at which General Manager is present and in small group or one-to-one consultation with the General Manager. In general, the Chinese personnel in KMC do not live in a working environment that encourages and facilitates the development of their spoken English skills. The existence of communication problems in KMC are related to the British accent, slang, colloquial expressions, and different use of words between American English and British English.

At the Bank of America (BOA) Loan Division, the use of spoken English is largely confined in interaction with the American General Manager and the American clients (approximately 30%), and loan-approval meetings. English is used only with English-speaking customers or Bank personnel. Because the majority of loan business is associated with Chinese firms, the work situations in the BOA Loan Division can be characterized as Chinese-language environment with an overlay of English. At the BOA, the Chinese personnel's use of English is enough to maintain their proficiency level but not enough to refine and improve their English-language skills. Since most loan officers received American MBA degrees and possess a fair command of English, the communication problem in BOA Loan

Division mainly on issue discussions in the loan-approval meetings, instead of information sharing. The communication problems in BOA Loan Division are related to the appropriate use language in a business context such as disputing purpusading, agreeing and so forth.

As for Cheng-Yia International Corp., (CYIC), a Chinese-managed manufacturing firm, there is a very small percent of individuals - individuals in the Marketing Dept. and Production Manager, possessing varying degrees of oral-English and Japanese language competence. The overall environment does not promote the development of foreign-language competence except for those individuals who have contact with foreign-language speakers as part of their job functions. Although Chinese personnel in CYIC possess the least English proficiency among four firms, they have the least communication problems. The foreign languages are used only externally when having contact with suppliers and buyers. In general, major contract negotiations are conducted with the aid of interpreters.

Summing up the interaction of language use in both oral and written communication among four firms, it is apparent that all of the four firms face different tasks and experience various language-related communication difficulties. Of the communication deficiency, the most communication problems have to do with oral communication. Major reasons of oral communication barriers are related to accent, use of slang and colloquial expressions, rapid speech, over complicated vocabulary, and required immediate response.

Conclusions and Recommendations

From the varying degrees of language interaction and the existence of different communication problems among four firms, it is concluded that the English proficiency is highly correlated with the frequency and needs of tasks, and that the communication difficulties, by and large, are associated with spoken English.

In general, each Taiwanese individual graduating from high school receives at least six years of English education. Despite the amount of time and effort individuals devote to the study of English, many still cannot handle even very simple conversation. The inefficient English-language education in Taiwan was the result of inappropriate material development, inadequate teacher trainings to enhance teachers' oral proficiency and to provide teachers updated, creative and accelerative teaching methodologies. Based on the research and observation, this paper will conclude with suggestions for those multinational corporations to provide language and intercultural training programs.

Language Training:

The overall goal of language instruction needs to be focused on proficiency in the use of the target language; specifically, the ability to understand and use the language for active communication in both spoken and written language. Traditional teaching tends to focus on linguistic competence; that is, the ability to control the phonology, morphology and syntax of the language. Linguistic competence is a very important and necessary part of language learning; however, language learning is not simply the mastery of the discrete feature of target language. Learning a language is to learn how to use it in a social context. In language learning, we should not neglect another important component so calledcommunicative competence--which is the ability to receive, understand, and produce comprehensive message suitable to different kinds of situations.

According to our research, 1986, most Chinese mid-to-upper-level managers possess good command of English competence. Thus, language training programs should design to provide learners opportunity to put the discrete point of linguistic skills they have learned to practical real communication.

In language training, improvements for individual company or privately-run language schools are needed for the following areas:

a. Curriculum design and material development. With the traditional teaching in Taiwan, the majority of high-school or college graduates possess fair command of English in linguistic competence. Thus, the curriculum should be organized in a way that the situation, the topics and ideas with which the learners encounter in the daily life. Within the content, the elements of grammar can be reviewed or reinforced. Grammar does not need to be taught progressively from the simple to the complex. The materials should cover the events of home country and the foreign country. To be able to introduce or carry conversation on "home cultural baggage" is as important as learning the foreign events and culture.

b. Teacher Preparation & In-Service Training. In Taiwan, there is a misconception that only Americans can teach English well. The majority of private institutes tend to use the "instant American teachers" -- such as travelers or students without professional training. A person who speaks the language does not mean or guarantee to be the good language teacher. It is far more important to hire the non-native speakers who receive the professional training, speak fluent or nearly native-like language, and are aware of both host and foreign cultures. As for those privately-run language institutions, providing in-service training such as seminars and workshops are very important and essential to keep teachers abreast in the field and enhance their language skills.

c. Teaching Methodology. The theories of teaching methodology has been more advanced than its application in the classroom settings. In the conventional way of teaching, most teachers pay most attention to "teacher talk."

If language instruction is to have a maximum impact on the language proficiency of students, teaching language should emphasize on the effective classroom activities to develop communicative competence. The methodologies are such as Suggetopedia, Total Physical Response, or Natural Approach. In teaching, these approaches or methods aim at developing a functional ability in the use of language rather than developing the mastery of a single grammatical point, or linguistic skills. As far as methodologies are concerned, it appears that most language theorists believe that a variety of techniques should be utilized and integrated to facilitate language learning naturally with emphasis on communicative competence and realistic utterance.

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DISCOURSE FEATURES OF ORAL NEWSTEXTS: COMPREHENSION OF INTERVIEWS

by

Dr. Louis V. Zuck
University of Michigan, Dearborn

and

Dr. Joyce G. Zuck
Ann Arbor, Michigan

Discourse Features of Oral Newstexts: Constraints, Strategies, and Comprehension

Newstexts both written and oral have received a lot of attention recently as a source of materials for second language learning. Although the advantages of using such texts remain, the materials that have come out of this attention ignore many of the advances in language learning theory. Further, the materials have emphasized reading skills and given only perfunctory practice in listening skills.

Second language learners need to learn to acquire information through oral texts, especially oral texts which have not been scripted (written in advance, edited, etc.). This paper analyzes some of the language problems encountered in informal interviews about the news as presented on a bradcast such as the McNeil-Lehrer News Hour. A videotaped interview segment will be shown in which the anchor and his guest engage in many of the strategies of formal oral exchange. Learners who are alerted to these strategies such as asking for clarification, rewording a statement, nominating the next subtopic, etc. can practice predicting and recognizing such strategies in other broadcasts and in similar situations in which they may be one of the participants.

Language learners also need to be made aware of the discourse features of the oral exchange. The discourse constraints on the passive voice will be illustrated in the segment. Only when the language learner becomes aware of the expected (i.e. obligatory) features of discourse strategies and discourse limits of a text will he be able to emphasize the unpredictable meaning-conveying features.

Handouts will include lists of some of the common conversational techniques used in five segments of the news hour and an analysis of the expected and unexpected uses of the passive voice in this news broadcast.

Equipment needed: ½" VHS video cassette playback and monitor setup
Time 20-30 minutes

USING PATTERNED DISCOURSE IN THE LANGUAGE OF LAW AND MEDICINE

Ronald A. Hoppe and Joseph F. Kess

Departments of Psychology and Linguistics
University of Victoria
Victoria, British Columbia
Canada V8W 2Y2
(604) 477-6441/658-5994 (home tel.)
(604) 721-7528/721-7429 (office tel.)

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IN PROFESSIONAL LANGUAGE ENCOUNTERS, THE NONPROFESSIONAL

conversational partner must be typically led through the specific inferential steps that the legal or medical professional intends them to proceed through in order to achieve the intended aim and no other. Depending on the task, the discourse may take the form of a lengthy oral instruction or a programmatic dialogue, both of which have as their intended aim information transferral, that is, the dissemination of some essential information, to be followed by some task to be performed on the part of the non-professional hearer or conversational partner. As an example of a lengthy oral instruction, one might cite the jury charge given by presiding judges at the time juries must retire to prepare their verdicts in criminal proceedings; as a typical example of programmatic dialogue, one might cite the tutorial exchange that physicians engage in with their patients with prior to eliciting decisions regarding patients' informed choices as to the subsequent course of treatment. In both types of discourse, the procedural objective of setting out the requisite steps to have the correct decision inferred is exactly the same, but the information delivery is often complicated by the constraints of what appears to be normal discourse. Unlike ordinary discourse exchanges, however, these encounters usually revolve around information-for- decision tasks which must not only be fulfilled, but fulfilled correctly if the episode is to have any value. Tasks like jury charges in law or doctor/patient consultation in medicine offer typical instances in which the structuring of inferential processes is crucial; in such pseudo-discourse the hearer must be led through a series of complex cognitive steps so that he must not only come to understand and store the appropriate information, but he must also be directed into a narrow sphere of correct possible decisions on the basis of the information the discourse attempts to convey.

This paper suggests that such professional encounters are in reality programmatic exchanges, or should be considered to be such, and that the psycholinguistic rules of processing and inference should be brought to bear in these exchanges in the same way that attempts have been made to include them in the creative design of effective written documentation. However, one other crucial factor needs to be integrated in such professional encounters for the successful realization of the object of such professional language exchanges. This additional feature is that the principles of discourse analysis should be employed to design patterned language protocols which effectively convey the desired inferences through the inescapable medium of discourse expectations as measured by normal ordinary exchanges. As its overall objective, this paper attempts to outline patterned discourse protocols for the structuring of inferential processes in areas like law and medicine where the constraints of discourse interact with the conventions of monologue deliveries or dialogue consultations and interviews.

This presentation will last 30 minutes, and has both language educators and business educators as its intended audience. The paper will also present specific examples of patterned discourse protocols for both legal and medical professional encounters, demonstrating how basic psycholinguistic principles of information processing and inference-making can be effectively laid out in the discourse of professional language encounters.

THE PROBLEM ADDRESSED BY PATTERNED LANGUAGE FORMATS

Many professional language formats which involve discourse exchanges are not realizing their informational objectives, and so we may speak of 'discourse design', or the use of patterned discourse in professional areas like the language of law and medicine. It is worth considering what typically happens in such professional language encounters. The nonprofessional listener or partner is supposedly led through a series of inferential steps that the legal or medical professional intends them to pay attention to. Let me be even more specific by giving an example for each of these settings, legal and medical. Let us also note that the specific example is chosen within a context in which information given precedes a decision taken, so that the incidents are even more narrow than just language exchanges with lawyers, judges, or physicians. As a legal example, let us employ the jury charge given by judges to juries to guide them in preparing their verdicts in criminal trials; as a medical example, let us employ the consultation that doctors coordinate with their patients in order to elicit patients' decisions as to the elected course of treatment when there are options to be selected among by the patient. The discourse examples chosen represent the continuum of discourse types available in such professional exchanges, ranging from the lengthy monologue (judges to juries) to the conversational dialogue (doctors to patients). Both intend information transferral, to be followed by some decision on the part of the nonprofessinal listener or conversational partner. Each type of discourse delivery is often complicated by the expectations that govern how we interpret ordinary discourse. But this is unlike ordinary discourse in that the encounters focus on information-for-decision tasks that must be fulfilled correctly if the language exchange is to achieve its maximum value. Very simply, juries are to reach possible correct verdicts within the law, and patients should choose the correct course of treatment.

This paper suggests that such professional encounters are in reality programmatic exchanges, or should be considered to be such, and that such such exchanges offer ready applications for the psycholinguistic rules of processing and inference. The other crucial factor that is needed to maximize the efficacy of such professional encounters is the inclusion of the principles of discourse analysis. We typically derive the desired inferences through the inescapable medium of discourse expectations as measured by normal ordinary exchanges. Though we would wish to suggest patterned discourse protocols as a principle in some areas of law and medicine, we do not believe that such goals will be fulfilled by a language style that is colloquial or unnaturally simple. Indeed, the formality, if not ritual, of such settings require that the language form be precise and accurate at the same time that it is intelligible. Solutions to such discourse problems are not to be found in the naive expectations of adherents of the plain language movement. The problem, we submit, is one of design, not of simplicity.

In its application, patterned language formats should be expected to take the form of discourse organizes information transferral within the framework of normal discourse presentations. A critical assumption in establishing discourse protocols in specific formats like law and medicine is that such inferential structuring is more than just simple comprehension. The framework of knowledge is usually not one that is familiar or specific enough to establish a frame of reference, within which one can organize incoming information. There has been considerable work both on structuring frameworks for machine intelligence (see Schank and Abelson, 1977, and Schank and Burstein, 1985) and for human processing (see Bower, Black, and Turner, 1981, Kintsch, 1985, Kintsch and Van Dijk, 1978, Van Dijk, 1979, 1981, and Van Dijk and Kintsch, 1983), as well as on the role of bias and context in the interpretation of meaning (see Hoppe and Kess, 1986, Kess and Hoppe, 1983, 1985). That frame of reference is as important, moreover, for understanding the discourse as it is for the storage and subsequent recall of the important features of that discourse when the decision(s) have to be made. One must assume that the same structures must underlie both inference-making from discourse and the way in which these inferentially-derived "facts" are recovered from storage at some later time.

In sum, it is obviously in the interest of both parties to professional discourse, the professional as well as the non-professional, to ensure that the information is conveyed clearly, directly, and informatively, in a sequence of inferential steps that supports the non-professional co-locutor's arrival at a decision which is ultimately his alone.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There has been a burst of insightful literature in the new field called 'discourse analysis', with commentary into what constitutes the pragmatic dimensions for human discourse and how interacting participants derive impressions and information from such encounters (De Beaugrande, 1980; Goodwin, 1981; Tannen, 1984; Van Dijk, 1979, 1981, 1985; Van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983). There is now even considerable work in what characterizes text and discourse in the practice of disciplines like law (Atkinson & Drew, 1979; Charrow, 1981; Danet, 1980, 1984, 1985; Drew, 1985; Goodrich, 1984) and medicine (Cicourel, 1981, 1985; Pendleton & Hasler, 1983). Some of this recent work has even attempted to grapple with specific tasks in these disciplines, as for example, the work on refining jury charges (Charrow & Charrow, 1979; Elwork, Sales & Alfini, 1982; Kess, 1985; Kess, Hoppe & Copeland, 1985; Myers & Jones, 1979; Sales, Elwork & Alfini, 1977; Severance & Loftus, 1982; Severance, Green & Loftus, 1984) and the work on the role of the language of power in settings like the courtroom (O'Barr, 1981, 1982) and the clinic (West, 1984).

A LEGAL EXAMPLE: JURY INSTRUCTIONS

Let us look more closely at the type of discourse problem offered by the instance of jury instructions. This is an orally-delivered one-sided presentation, probably best thought of as a form of monologic oral documentation. In fact, such one-sided monologic presentations are not uncommon, and range in drama and scope from jury charges to broadcast emergency instructions. Such professional language requires an ordered sequencing of inferential steps equivalent to a hierarchical progression through the information, followed by a similar hierarchical progression through the decision points that relate to the technical information. Such discourse probably also requires highlighting of key points (in some discourse equivalent of boldface or italics), as well as overt indicators of when the discourse has taken a turn into a different direction, indicating a new set of steps to be attended to. However, needless repetition may not be helpful, since it presents a violation of Grice's Cooperate Principle, and may send the listener off mistakenly looking for further inferences to be made from this recycling of old information. Every care must be given to the results of a discourse set in which the non-professional receiver of information is prohibited from interacting directly with the originator (jury to judge). One way of achieving this is by following a patterned language format which ensures that the following three vital features of a jury charge are attended to in the development of the charge. (Note that we are here concerned with schemas and scripts, and not with the specifics of sentence processing; for discussion of processing specific syntactic constructions like nominalizations, whiz deletions, and so on, see Kess, Hoppe, and Copeland, 1985, and Kess and Hoppe, in press).

1. state the law: comprehensibility
2. schema progression through technical information relevant
3. directly address the task the jury must perform in light of info

Obviously, the aim of such protocols for juries must be to increase the the percentage of technically 'correct' decisions in criminal proceedings in the legal setting. But comprehensibility of individual sentences, we have learned, is not a sufficient criterion for ensuring comprehensibility of the entire text, in this case a jury charge. Given that many judges tend to simply read the legal code directly, or in some slightly modified version, it may be wise to simply allow this appeal-proofing tradition continue. However, once it is established that the law has been presented and jury charge may be considered relatively safe from appeal on these grounds, the judge can simply re-state the law in professional, but more comprehensible language to the lay jury (point 1 above), but at the same time providing a discourse set of directions though the technical information (point 2 above). And perhaps most importantly, the jury must be instructed in the discourse as to where it must make decisions, and on the basis of which information (point 3 above). Decisions are best processed as calls for decision when they are specifically pointed out as decision points, and directly addressed as decisions to be taken by the listener (for example, *You must do/decide. . . .*. Moreover, within this frame of reference, decision paths which are obscured by the surface structure format of the syntax should be untangled by this approach to signalling which decisions are to be made (for example, disjunctives like *You must either. . .or. . . .* should be given as *If x is true, then you must. . . ; if y is true, you must . . . .*.).

A MEDICAL EXAMPLE: DOCTOR-PATIENT INTERVIEW

Imagine as a typical conversational dialogue the exchange that doctors and patients might participate in as the consultation session after certain diagnostic tests have suggested a limited course of action. An even more specific example of this is the tutorial-like conversation that obs have with expectant parents when a test like ultra-sound suggests Caesarean section as a likely possible choice on the parents' part, instead of a protracted trial of labor. A number of non-medical rules operate here, rules like what governs conversational turn-taking and how conversational cohesion is maintained, as well as how we typically try to make inferences in a conversation. Note that in such a dialogue—a dialogue which is not really a conversation as such--those rules of inferential processing must interact with the rules of discourse analysis.

There are three areas in such doctor–patient interaction that can profit from recent insights in the fields of psycholinguistics and discourse analysis. These three areas have to do with sentence processing, thematic structure, and the interpretation of indirect speech acts. First of all, some sentence patterns are easier to process from a psycholinguistic point of view, and thus easier for the average hearer to comprehend. Such considerations have little to do with simplicity, but are really reflective of the fact that some "simple" structures are easier to deal with than others from a processing point of view. Thus, information or decision paths which are obscured by the surface structure format of the syntax should be untangled by a patterned language format which avoids using negatives, singly, doubly, or multiply. For example, compare *It is not the case that San Francisco is not south of Los Angeles*, or even the seemingly less complex *San Francisco is not north of Los Angeles*, with *San Francisco is north of Los Angeles*. Now, everyone knows where Los Angeles and San Francisco are in respect to one another Recall now that not everyone knows the technical information that is about to be imparted in the doctor–patient consultation! yet note the processing difficulties you had with the first two sentences containing negatives. Similarly, relative clauses should be introduced with markers like *which, that, who, etc.*, rather than as embedded clauses which do not signal closure. Contrast *The doctor expected to perform the surgery failed to appear* with the same sentence, *The doctor who was expected to perform the surgery failed to appear*. As a final example of many more that could be cited in the area of surface format, note that disjunctives with *or* can be confusing, and phrases like *You must either. . .or. . . .* should be given as branching paths, like *If x is true, then you must. . . ; if y is true, you must . . . ..*).

Secondly, the organization of information in a typical professional exchange could profit from a thematic structuring of the essential informational focus of the consultation. Non-professional conversational partners should be guided in the inferences they make regarding the range and importance of information presented to them by professional conversational partners. Patients may require an ordered sequencing of inferential steps equivalent to a hierarchical progression through the decision points that relate to the technical information. The discourse delivery may also require highlighting of key points (in some conversational equivalent of boldface or italics), as well as similar indicators of when a new topic has been introduced and the old one terminated or when discourse on the previous topic has turned in a new direction. Doctors can thus provide a thematic set of discourse directions though the technical information, by instructing the patient where he/she must make a decision, and on the basis of which information. Lastly, decisions are best processed as calls for decision when they are specifically pointed out as decision points, and directly addressed as decisions to be taken by the listener (for example, You must do/decide. . . ..

Lastly, much in professional discourse is filtered through the normal expectations one has regarding asymmetrical conversations, and as a result, many indirect speech acts may not be correctly or easily interpreted. The fact is that the information transferral task is often interfered with because of the discourse expectations by both parties, and in such a way that neither of their interests is served as adequately as they might be. The correct inference may not be taken, or if vague and ambiguous, may not be available for renegotiation because of the way such asymmetrical conversations are organized. One important feature which needs to be recognized in any attempt to apply patterned language to the doctor-patient exchange is that the non-professional conversational partner, the patient, is not an interactant in the normal sense of discourse exchanges, but is typically a weaker partner in discourse matters like topic initiation, question advancement, conversational recycling, and so forth. Note how this is matched by forms of respectful address, that is, who gives first-name as opposed to title-last-name in naming exchanges. Such weak partners are typically inhibited from querying the originator too severely or too directly for a variety of sociolinguistic reasons. For one thing, questions asked too directly, too severely, or too persistently are often perceived as a challenge to the status of the one questioned, rather than as just a quest for information.

A patterned form of language would furthermore try to make inferences are direct as possible, without ambiguity. For example, Try not to lift anything for the first day, as an injunction to an out-patient who has undergone a minor surgery is simply too vague, and in fact, is ambiguous in at least two ways. The illocutionary force of this indirect speech act is really that of command, and should be tagged as such. Moreover, is the "first day" the day of the operation or is it the day after? One of the inherent strengths of being a professional is that one knows the facts of the business so well; one of the inherent weaknesses of over-familiarity with the "facts" is that one tends to forget that the non-professional does not know them, and is usually ill-equipped to read the correct inference into the conversational gambit. This is readily resolved by a programmed language format; for example, an injunction like Please do not lift anything for the first two days removes the indirectness of the command, and makes it even more explicit by signalling a command follows by the addition of the word please. Contrary to what etiquette books may suggest to you, please sees its real function as a discourse marker suggesting I command you, pay attention, another command is to follow.

In medicine, physicians obviously have an informed preference for the choice of decision given by patients or the path of action patients should follow in remediation. However, it is ultimately the patients' decision point, and so the consultation between doctor and patient usually follows a course of physician laying out the information and subsequent alternatives, with the patient taking the final decision for the path of action to be followed. In such instances where physicians have a statable preference for a technically 'correct' choice, an awareness of the psycholinguistic principles of how information is processed and inferences derived may smooth the doctor-patient interaction, even pointing it in the desired direction. Here it should be pointed out that such 'discourse designed' dialogues between doctor and patient will continue to be conversations, funneled through the filter of what appears to be normal discourse, with all of the social amenities, pleasantries, and approved 'bedside manner' conditions that traditionally constitute the benign and smoothing essence of such professional exchanges. But such self-aware discourse will also include features expected to maximize the correct inferences made by patients, for the obvious reason that comprehension will be either enhanced or eroded by the pragmatic conditions which underlie its comprehension and establish its conversational acceptability to individual patients. We would hope that these suggestions would enhance the general level of satisfaction of patients, and by implication, for doctors as well.

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READING ON THE JOB: SCHEMA, FUNCTION, AND DEPTH

by

Dr. William A. Jordan

Reading on the Job: Schema, Function, and Depth

Dr. William A. Jordan

Introduction

In examining job reading, emphasis has usually been placed on identifying the quantity of reading done in particular jobs (Diehl and Mikulecky, 1980), trying to determine the reading level needed for success in various jobs (Sticht et al., 1972), or using reading type analysis to examine reading in a particular trade (Chang, 1985). While these studies have yielded useful information about what may or may not be generalized about job reading, little work has been done to identify and explain reading problems within an occupation and to provide curricular and instructional information .

This study combined several different rhetorical perspectives with a cognitive hierarchy, Bloom's Taxonomy (1956) in examining reading on the job. Selinker and Trimble (1973, 1976, 1978) identified rhetorically determined grammar in technical writing (tense and article constraints among others) as well as rhetorical function-shifts e.g., within a passage overtly labelled description, a definition will occur which acts as a referent for the rest of the unit. Kaplan (1972) looked at patterns of the native language of foreign students and their writing form in English and determined that certain rhetorical patterns emerge from the interaction, i.e. students will write English sentences in a rhetorical form used in their native language.

The study was completed at the Albuquerque Technical-Vocational Institute and at Albuquerque area businesses. The areas examined included architectural drafting, office occupations, diesel mechanics, practical nursing, respiratory technicians, nurse assistants, electronics, instrumentation and control, and laser electro-optics.

Depth

Because type analysis and determination of time spent reading examine only the external situation of job reading, the Bloom Taxonomy was applied to job tasks to determine the depth of reading comprehension needed. For example, a mechanic may spend an hour a day looking up parts numbers for retrieval by the warehouse, but that is very low-level reading, needing only the basic comprehension of identifying the vehicle type, age and part particulars. However, when a mechanic is working on a vehicle and must remove a part to examine it for defects against the given specifications, he must use analysis, synthesis and evaluation, high level cognitive functions. The specification of cognitive depth gives fuller meaning to comprehension in reading.

Function

Function has two related levels in this study. On the one hand, function operates at the rhetorical level in specifying the purpose of the overall passage, e.g., to describe a trouble-shooting procedure or to list conditions of a trust document or contract. On the other hand, it operates on the sentence level in specifying how those larger rhetorical forms are brought to the page; e.g., some ideas are more easily presented in complex sentences showing explicit subordination, while others come forth more easily in compound sentences showing coordinate position. Thus, function in technical reading determines that the overall purpose is consonant with the way the material is presented, or should be presented.

Schema

Broadly, schemas represent the overall pattern of a passage, including syntactic, semantic, and rhetorical levels. Just as a child learns schemas for fairy tales, including such aspects as a beginning, middle and end, good versus bad, and resolution of conflict, a technical reader must learn the pattern of a technical article including the forms, formats, and grammar. Generally, occupational areas which use discrete units for a given piece of reading are characterized by subordinate sentence structure and hierarchical organization. In contrast, occupational areas which use related units for a given piece of reading are characterized by coordinate sentence structure and cumulative organization.

Integration of Function and Schema

A good example of discrete, hierarchical organization with subordinate sentence structure is the typical diesel manual, though it could be almost any written unit dealing with mechanical repair or operation. The organization of the book, just as the organization of the sentence type, follows the pattern which appears to develop from the function which by nature is discrete, i.e., the only connection between the starter motor and the brakes is that they are mounted in the same vehicle and may be described in the same manual.

Diesel mechanics (and mechanics as a whole) is organized from the top down in a hierarchical classification and is characterized by subordinate sentence structure to support the "If...,then" type of thought development. The whole is made up of parts, but the parts, being discrete, only have relation through the whole. If one part were omitted, it would not necessarily change the other sections.

The manuals used in diesel mechanics have a very discrete organizational pattern. Just as the systems of a truck are discrete and not linked, so the parts of a manual are not linked. The isolation of each system from the others allows repair to proceed in a logical sequence, organized by a typical trouble-shooting procedure: "If the engine does not turn, go to page .... Check primary electrical system.", "If the engine turns, but does not start, go to page...check ignition system," "If the engine starts, then dies quickly, turn to page...check fuel system." Each sentence is subordinate, placing a condition on the reader that takes him to a separate part of the manual where the noted system will be further analysed in the same manner--rather than continuing the discussion within the same section or unit.

Furthermore, in diesel manuals, the pattern is hierarchically larger-to-smaller in each unit--whatever the unit size whether complete manual or sub-chapter. Manuals begin with an overall physical, functional, and operational description of the unit and proceed to subdivide, with each subunit following the same pattern of top-down, larger-to-smaller classification.

At the other extreme is the legal language encountered by people in Office Occupations (and peripherally in many other occupations as well) which is characterized by a horizontal rhetorical structure and coordinate sentence structure. Again, this grows out of the function. A legal document, a trust or contract for example, demands to be dealt with as a unified passage in which the various parts contribute to a whole. The invalidation of a single part can invalidate the whole.

In law, a definition must say what a thing is as well as what it is not, and there is as much litigation about what a thing is as about what it is not. The positive definition stands in coordinate relation to the negative definition, e.g., "The company will be responsible for ... and ... and ..., but it will not be responsible for ... and ... or ... unless...." To accomplish this need, the rhetorical form is organized horizontally (as in the lists of whereases in a contract where each is equal to the others), and the sentence structure uses coordination rather than subordination.

Expansion to Other Occupational Areas

Rarely is an occupation limited to just one type of structure. Just as several types of paragraph development, for example, cause and effect, and comparison and contrast, may occur simultaneously, so might types of organization and sentence structure overlap.

In the Health Occupations, one sees both types of reading. If a nurse reads a patient chart or history, the information must be cumulative, as it is following a temporal sequence leading to the present. On the other hand, following protocols, or instructions for a mechanical device, will probably be characterized by discrete information.

In like manner, the electronics industry is characterized by maintenance on one side and research and development on the other. One of the characteristics of research and development work is the recording of all pertinent information: material, procedure, and result. Both positive and negative results are recorded because both are important, especially in light of any variations of material and procedure involved. This is necessary not only for the ability to replicate the experiment but also for establishing the date and procedure for patents and proprietary rights. Maintenance and repair troubleshooting, on the other hand, has a known linear sequence proceeding in a top-down fashion until the piece is serviced.

Reading in research and development (R&D) must be cumulative in nature as previous variations in material and procedure must be taken into account. Then, in recording results, note must be taken of what happened as an end product of the protocol followed. On the other hand, reading in troubleshooting is discrete, concerned only with the part under consideration; recording of information is limited to material fixed or replaced. Necessarily, reading in an R&D setting must be more involved than in troubleshooting as the researcher must be able to follow linear procedure as well as the troubleshooter, but must additionally be able to go beyond, dealing with results and at least a tentative discussion of why the results occurred.

Most occupations have at least a little cross-over of types, and many use both frequently. Diesel mechanics encounter legal style language in warranties and insurance work even as legal secretaries find discrete forms of reading in following office protocols.

Schema, Function and Depth

Where the integration of schema and function show the occupationally specific patterns of language, those patterns can be used more fruitfully to analyze texts by the addition of the element of depth. That is, does the text function purely as a reference? or must the information be internalized? If the former, does the reference reading demand low-level or high level cognition? If the latter, does the reader need to have a background in the subject in order to comprehend it? The specification of the structure of the text is only one part of analysing a job reading passage. The level of cognition needed for comprehension is quite another.

Recommendations for Instruction

Reading instruction should occur as an integral part of the curriculum and not, as in the present system, piecemeal remediation for those inadequately prepared for an occupation. The present system does not address the reality of the workplace adequately. Reading should not be taught explicitly as reading, but should be taught as another skill needed in the field. To a point, each occupation teaches reading already with instruction in charts, schematics, exploded views and diagrams; but just as these items are not taught in isolation, neither should be reading, because, at the most fundamental level, reading on the job means knowing how to get information. It means knowing how to access information whether in a reference manual, microfiche, or an on-line computer search and then how to integrate that knowledge to solve the problem at hand. With every occupation studied moving toward electronics and computer use, not only are job descriptions and the methods of doing those jobs changing, but also the types and methods of access of information for those jobs.

Having stated that explicit teaching of reading should be avoided, there are many ways in which reading instruction can be embedded into the course content for the benefit of the students and the ease of the teacher. With occupationally-specific problems at the lexical, syntactic, and rhetorical levels, the obvious place to teach reading is in the content classroom, and not as a separate class. Once reading is acknowledged as a job skill and not an academic frill by the vocational instructors, the teaching of reading can proceed under the guise of "how-to-access technical information."

The idea of gaining and using new information occurs on several levels, each of which can be approached by looking at the underlying rhetorical pattern previously presented. The teaching of the lexical, syntactic, rhetorical and informational levels within the context of the course content gives meaning to the pattern of organization rather than trying to add on "reading information" after course content has been taught.

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE SIXTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGES AND COMMUNICATION FOR WORLD BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

PART VI.

BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL FRENCH

RETRAINING LANGUAGE EDUCATORS IN BUSINESS FRENCH: OPPORTUNITIES IN EUROPE AND SUGGESTED STRATEGIES

by

Michel Drouere
Chamber of Commerce and Industry, Paris

1987 EMU CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGES AND COMMUNICATION
FOR WORLD BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

Proposal Title: Retraining Language Educators in Business French: Opportunities in Europe and Suggested Strategies

Time: 20 minutes

Audience: Business French Teachers

This presentation has two basic parts. First, an overview will be presented of the teacher training programs at various French universities and schools. Most of these programs take place during the summer and are aimed at US teachers wishing to retrain themselves in business French.

Second, a number of strategies will be outlined, in addition to the retraining programs mentioned above, by which French teachers can gain the kinds of knowledge of the business world and commercial French needed to teach these subjects in US colleges and universities.

At all times these retraining opportunities and strategies will be related to the contents of the Examinations in Commercial French of the Paris Chamber of Commerce and Industry.

TEACHING BUSINESS FRENCH:

ARE WE LEAVING THE IVORY TOWER?

by

Daniel R. Morris

Southern Oregon State College

A PAPER

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and Communication for World Business and the Professions
sponsored by Eastern Michigan University
Ann Arbor, Michigan
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TEACHING BUSINESS FRENCH:
ARE WE LEAVING THE IVORY TOWER?

In recent years, foreign language study has experienced a tremendous boom. At least 30 states have initiated or restored foreign language requirements since the early 1980's and over 90 major colleges, including Yale and several state systems, have made foreign language study a requirement for either graduation or entry. (See Rohter 33). Enrollments are on the rise at every level of instruction. Much of the current trend can be attributed to the report from the President's Commission on Foreign Languages and International studies which appeared in 1979, and indeed, this movement has been fueled by Congress and business leaders who are "worried that the inability of most Americans to master a second language has undermined the nation's commercial and strategic position in an increasingly competitive world" (Rohter 33).

The advent of language courses related to business and the professions almost directly corresponds to the overall increase in language enrollment. While a few innovative departments intiated such courses several years ago to try to attract new students at a time when foreign languages were in a crunch, most such courses have been developed in the 1980's as the result of an increased need recognised by students or even business departments, and due to pressure from business and government leaders who contend that the traditional language and literature training was insufficient.

While the increased interest in foreign language study has been enthusiastically received by language educators, it has created some problems. Many college professors who have been trained in literature have been reluctant or even refused to acquire the necessary expertise to teach language courses in business or other professional fields. Furthermore, language teachers who have begun to teach such courses are often considered inferior to their counterparts who teach literature and culture. Business, contend these protectors of the Ivory Tower, does not form part of the field of humanities, and business language teachers may be branded as traitors, if not openly, at least subconsciously and through inuendos, to certain idealistic commitments. They may even feel guilty and embarassed to admit that they teach business French. The historical role that France has played in the influence of literature, art, and music has perhaps increased the disregard for business French courses over other similar courses in languages such as Spanish or Japanese. Major liberal arts colleges which have graduate literature programs in foreign languages have often been the most reluctant to adopt new courses related to business, due in part to fear that literature courses would subsequently suffer declining enrollments, but also due to a desire to protect the Ivory Tower ideals to which they are committed.

At the same time that language courses related to business are being developed, major companies are beginning to recognize the importance of a liberal arts education for students entering the business world. In 1984, the Association of American Colleges and the National Endowment for the Humanities organised a conference in Princeton, New Jersey in order for corporate leaders to discuss the value of a liberal arts education in business. The conference participants published a report, which was circulated to hundreds of corporate executive officers throughout the U.S., in which they concluded that the study of the humanities can provide "knowledge and develop skills necessary for success in the business world." ("Liberal Arts Majors" 6). The report continues that the study of the humanities helps to build a strong foundation for a career in business by developing "strengths that scientific or technical training alone seldom provides--judgment, an historical sense, knowledge of other languages and cultures, recognition of ethical issues, interpersonal abilities, communication skills, intellectual flexibility, a capacity for interpretive and creative thinking." ("Liberal Arts Majors" 6)

In view of these findings, and given the current trends in language teaching, language educators need to recognize two important points. First, in teaching business French, Spanish, Japanese or any other specialty course, we are also teaching culture. Culture courses have long since ceased to concentrate uniquely on culture with a capital C, but emphasize many aspects of a country's society and environment. Factors governing business practices in any country are frequently cultural rather than legal. The formalities used in French commercial correspondance, for example, reflect an aspect of French culture and tradition, rather than legally binding requirements of letter writing. The fact that many French people still prefer to purchase food items, cigarettes, newspapers and magazines on a daily rather than a weekly or monthly basis representes another example of a cultural tendency effecting business practices. The business French teacher must therefore help students understand cultural influences on business and not just turn the business French course into a lesson on vocabulary. We want students who can do more than say "balance sheet," "stock market," or "net gain" in French.

Second, in developing new programs, language educators and administrators need to continue to recognize the value of literary studies in a liberal arts education and the long range benefit of such an educatation for students who come through our programs. Barbara Bowley states:

> With the increasing recognition that ultimately all business will require an understanding of the international marketplace, the role of the foreign language educator will rapidly extend from the liberal arts college to the school or college of business. This extension will involve not just instructional services, but also participation in policy decisions related to the integration of foreign language and international studies. (9)

The increasing role of language educators in policies and program design of other departments presents a unique opportunity and responsibilty. Coupled with the influx of non-humanity oriented students into foreign language programs, it allows language educators to influence a larger segment of the student population. We must not abandon our commitment to culture and literary studies in an attempt to satisfy the desires and demands of business students or faculty. In fact, we need to remain faithfull to Ivory Tower, Liberal Arts ideals in order to create the type of student that even business and economic leaders find desirable to employ, possessing the interpersonal and communicative skills and the interpretative, creative thinking abilities gained from such studies and increasingly valuable in today's business climate. If we do not, we risk the possibility of turning out the same type of business graduate as in the past who only has the added advantage of being able to talk business in French, when in reality we need to educate individuals who will be much more capable of living in an international environment.

In order to fulfill the needs of business language students while at the same time remaining true to the principles of a liberal arts education, it is necessary to start in lower division language courses. The emphasis on proficiency in recent years has resulted in texts which focus on developing certain elementary "skills". While language educators and business leaders alike welcome the movement towards oral as well as written proficiency, most of the proficiency-oriented skills found in beginning texts simulate typical tasks or situations encountered by tourists -- renting rooms, buying plane or train tickets, eating in restaurants, asking directions, etc. While such skills are useful even for students who may some day live and work in France, they are skills that require a limited amount of communicable ability. For years, tourists have been able to travel without these abilities in the language and will no doubt continue to do so. While I am not advocating the elimination of these elementary tasks, other situations should be correlated with them which simulate a business environment or which duplicate other authentic, communicable tasks that an individual living rather than just traveling in the country may face. We are not trying to simply create a group of fluent tourists. For example, many beginning texts introduce practical telephone conversations. One can easily create telephone conversations that imitate office situations rather than making a reservation in a hotel or restaurant or calling home to ask for money. The same could be said for letter writing. Most texts, at some early stage, present exercices in which students are asked to write letters to an imaginary French friend. Although the vocabulary and formalities of business letters in French are rather complicated, one can introduce at this level some basic formats of business correspondance and even create situations where students could write business letters, using models given them. In an in-house French language program developed by Crédit Lyonnais in New York, beginning students were introduced to regular -er verbs by using discuter, effectuer, traiter, comptabiliser, and virer as models rather than danser or dîner (Finel-Honigman 29). The possibilities are unlimited, and students enjoy simulating such day to day situations instead of always imitating typical tourist activities.

The inclusion of business related exercises in early texts obviously involves additional voacabulary, and requires an evaluation of the vocabulary being presented. Last quarter, while teaching an Introduction to Business French course for third year students, I found that they were totally unfamiliar with vocabulary for typical office equipment, such as staplers, file cabinets, or computer related terminology. An inspection of beginning French texts reveals in fact that many, including, ironically, some texts which provide accompanying computor software programs, do not present words such as computors, software, or word processor, while at the same time introducing "confiture aux fraises" or "maillot de bain". Is it really more important for our students to know how to say strawberry jam or bathing suit rather than word processor? Newer texts that include some business related terminology all too often introduce it as secondary, less important vocabulary, which receives little attention.

Beginning texts should not stop with the presentation of more practical terminology. They should also stress cultural elements which govern not only daily life in France but also business and economic practices. Irène Finel-Honigman, who conducts the in-house language program for Crédit Lyonnais, states that "present-day language programs must not only integrate commercial and economic semantics, translation and stylistic skills, but also develop concepts in cross-cultural training geared toward the requisites of corporate communication" (27). "The application of a humanities background," she continues, "toward a better understanding of foreign business methods and attitudes facilitates objective/subjective modes of communication and accentuates intercultural awareness" (31). Students form at a very early stage an impression of the country and culture, and cultural notes concentrating only on the typical French high fashion, wine, cheese, and tourist attractions will create a false impression and fail to prepare students for the reality of life in France. Wilga Rivers states:

> "Teachers need to go beyond the shallow culture of knives and forks, or sombreros and berets, to the discussion of ideas, attitudes, and viewpoints on contemporary issues and the reasons, embedded in the history and experience of the people, for much of their contemporary behavior" (39).

The concern for proficiency has also caused most writers of beginning language texts to eliminate literary readings such as poems and short stories. Less and less emphasis seems to be placed on the artistic and cultural heritage of France in these texts, as they rarely mention authors, artists, and historical figures. Recently, in teaching an introduction to literature class for third year French students, I found that two thirds of the students had never heard of Jean-Paul Sartre. Even a brief exposure in lower division courses to some of the people and events that have influenced contemporary French thought and society helps to develop a deeper understanding of French culture, while at the same time generating student interest and encouraging future study. Beginning students can also write their own poems or other creative works given appropriate models to follow, thereby developing creative abilities increasingly desirable in the business world. We must not abandon the introduction of literature at lower levels, but instead, we should help students understand that if they are to compete in the current economic situation and live a more meaningful life in our increasingly international world, they must develop the appreciation and understanding of foreign cultures which a study of their literature, art and history will bring about. A creative, cultural education must accompany and balance the increased focus on business related skills.

Third year college courses and more advanced courses dealing with grammar, conversation and composition should continue to incorporate both practical business French material and Cultural (with a capital C) material. Even courses on business French or other specialized courses can and should include references to literature and art. The Crédit Lyonnais program uses traditional cultural films, such as "Le Médecin malgré lui" or "On ne badine pas avec l'amour" in their French classes for banking employees (Finel-Honigman 30). It is absurd to think that an American businessman living in France or dealing frequently with French colleagues would limit all discussions to financial matters. While the typical American working in France may not find a need to discuss La Chanson de Roland or perhaps not even Sartre or existentialism, it is not at all unlikely that, during a business luncheon or other business encounter, the discussion may turn to recent books discussed on the popular French television program Apostrophes. Business French courses can enhance the interest and knowledge of literature and the arts by providing simulated conversations on related topics, within a business setting, or by incorporating names of authors or books into exercises. For example, in dealing with business correspondance, students can be asked to create letters between a bookstore and a publisher in which the names of literary works are used. Students will invariably inquire about the titles listed, offering the opportunity for a brief but informative discussion on the author or work in question. Or, a class could view a segment of Apostrophes, now available to American universities, followed by a discussion of the cultural elements of France which make such a program popular and which may influence commercial practices. International business students need to understand the cultural heritage of France and its influence on contemporary life. Granted, most business French courses have a limited amount of time and a wealth of material to cover, but cultural material can easily be incorporated into business related discussions and vocabulary activities.

The ideal situation on the third and fourth year levels is to encourage and even require students to take courses in literature and culture as well as specialized courses such as Business French. We must remember that speciality courses, as Rivers notes, are the ice cream on the pie (40). They add something that makes the students more marketable, but should not be viewed as a replacement for other courses. Fluency in the language and a knowledge of the culture are essential foundations upon which specialty courses can build. In developing curriculum for new programs, specifically related to international business or international studies, which are coordinated with other campus departments, language faculty should continue to encourage the inclusion of literary courses in these programs. Such efforts will be severely hampered by professional schools and business departments who, as Mustapha Bénouis points out, do not generally recognize their students' needs in humanistic areas and may fail to see the immediate usefulness of literature courses for their business students, who already have a demanding list of course requirements to fulfill (16). Consequently, departments should consider developing new courses or modifying current literary courses to accomadate the non-literary student. Again, in the Crédit Lyonnais program, literature courses were offered in conjunction with courses on culture, grammar, and business practices. Some of the literature courses focus on specific topics of greater interest to the banking employees, such as socio-economic themes in French literature and comparative studies of financial themes in French and American novels (Finel-Honigman 30). Perhaps more importantly, as Rivers suggests, literature courses should be broadened to include all aspects of literature, including folk tales as well as great works of literature and any other material which will generate meaningfull discussion and develop analytical skills. Rivers also suggests that literature teachers abandon old, yellowed lecture notes in favor of developing more creative ways of teaching involving student generated discussion and allowing students to relive the parts of characters or to write their own poems or stories (41).

Language educators must therefore view the current trend in language study as an opportunity, an opportunity to extend Ivory Tower ideals to a broader base of students, while at the same time allowing humanities students to acquire skills useful for survival in today's world. Just as the study of humanities can help to create a more balanced individual, the addition of business and specialty courses to our literary curriculum will add another component to the balanced education of our own liberal arts students. Business language courses therefore offer the opportunity for a perfect marriage between the Ivory Tower and the practicality of the modern world. In order to attain this union, it is necessary that teachers of literature and teachers of specialty language courses cooperate, each recognizing the value of both fields. Institutions which have begun teaching business language courses often discover that such courses do not diminish enrollment in literature courses and can even enhance enrollment by drawing non-literary students to advanced language programs (See Bénouis 14). Condescending attitudes and conflict between literature and business language professors must disappear in order to meet the long-term needs of our students, who will confront an increasingly international environment wherein a knowledge of professional skills alone will not be sufficient. The final result of this combined effort will be individuals well-adapted to live and work in an international environment, capable of engendering humanistic values to enrich their own lives and make that world better.

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BUSINESS FRENCH AND THE LIBERAL ARTS: A CREATIVE SYMBIOSIS

by

Michèle O. Newman
Pace University

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Pace University

BUSINESS FRENCH AND THE LIBERAL ARTS: A CREATIVE SYMBIOSIS

I am honored to have been invited here to share with you some of the experiences I am encountering while working on the development of a sequence of two courses in Business French. Like many amongst you now teaching the languages for business, my previous experience was strictly literary.However, a renewed interest in foreign languages has brought forward a myriad articles and reports aimed at motivating and urging the language teachers to review their objectives and design programs with broadened perspectives, and a better chance to provide our future graduates with a more relevant product, a marketable expertise.

I was very fortunate a few years back to meet two dynamic pioneers of the field Languages for Business, Brigitte Mueller and Claude Le Goff, at a workshop of AATF, in November 1982. I was then barely into the first draft of my Ph. D. thesis, and concerned with the fact that neither Diderot nor Mme de Staël were going to provide me with much material for my French classes. The workshop inspired me. Encouraged by the interest manifested by colleagues from International Marketing and International Management , I started to examine the needs of our large business student population on campus, and could not wait to start the recycling of my Liberal Arts training. In 1984, three weeks after my defense, The Ecole Supérieure de Lyon, in a superb environment, provided a total immersion in the world of business. As a M. Gharmilli was dramatically unraveling the mysteries of cost accounting, as I was watching a film of the plant manufacturing bottles for beer or Perrier, as elegant Maître Audrey Ducroux spoke about business law, I felt first submerged, then challenged but fascinated. It did seem possible after all to commercialize a liberal arts major. The challenge of "Jeu Creator", led by gourmet expert M. Fournier, a game in which you are realistically assessing the possibilities of success in a business venture, based upon a hand of cards that spell out the facts, was so enlightening that it forced me to reflect upon the naiveté with which, one fine summer, I lost two thousand precious dollars, opening an art gallery in a very posh neighboring little town. I am living proof of the blunders Liberal Arts without business acumen can commit. If quite late in life I could find my awareness of things enhanced by an exposure to another mind exercise, so can the much more malleable grey matter of our students.

Like Montaigne, I know best my own experience, so I hope you will accept this very humble sharing of my still limited adventure teaching the course French for Business with a less than homogeneous group. I suspect some of you might - like ourselves at Pace - run the risk of having upper level language courses cancelled because of low registration. If language majors can take the language for business course to fulfill their requirements, it might make the difference. It has for us. We started three years ago, and the course has run twice. Each time we had a combination of International Marketing, Management, and Finance majors, plus an assortment of Liberal Arts majors: last spring, an Education major teaching College Russian, a double major Lit/Com and French, a French/Japanese language major, a History major, and an Art major. This spring, as five graduating students needed the three credits, it was conducted as a tutorial, with one Education/French double major.

How does our course, entitled "French for Industry and the Professions", meet the academic goals and allows us to reach the level of expertise expected from French majors? Very well indeed. First it ensures that we address the four skills. The student who may have been somewhat unhappy to find out that this was the only upper level course offered at a given moment, when his/her impending graduation made it mandatory, will soon become aware that academically nothing is lost. Because the language for business is primarily language, it is as valid as any sample from any other field of endeavor. Since business deals with reality, the sequences of transactions, interactions and presentations meant to effect the marketing, promoting and acquisition of any given product or service, are either written or spoken in acceptable, even desirable language. So we have no reason to assume it is less effective in reaching the objective of improved fluency and familiarity with structures, idioms, vocabulary, and cultural context. In fact this interlude may well be an eye opener. The students realize that the situations explored in the text are VERY REAL ones. They meet real people in the act of performing the daily tasks encountered while earning a living. The dialogues are not a series of business equations: through them we are dealing with social graces, polite formulas, and desirable behavior in a crosscultural context. The oral skills can be very well developed as we witness, listen to, and try to emulate a business school graduate during his first interview with his/her future boss, or at a luncheon with a regional manager. It's a challenging exercise in conversation to imagine that you are Paul Jones, a young American opening a bank account in Paris, where he is just starting an internship, and to imitate him as he embarks on a lengthy conversation with a "guichetière" (teller) whom he invites for a drink immediately. It is certainly more innovative than many of the usual exchanges taking place between students discussing their courses or the local restaurants. A dimension of"credibility" is built in. Students of all disciplines enjoy projecting and start to visualize a future beyond term papers and tests: we cross the barrier from perhaps irrelevant to essential.

Pedagogically speaking, the range covered in the three texts I have either used or am considered for future adoption - Fontenille's Vie des Affaires, Danilo's Français Commercial, and the newly published book by Claude Le Goff, French for Business/ le Français des Affaires, all follow in detail a particular experience, a career, a business venture, and thus provide an excellent opportunity for the student to familiarize himself with vocabulary from all sectors of the world of business. As we somehow follow a case story, a person on a new job, a "stagiaire" abroad, or the owner of a P.M.E. (small firm), the language acquisition takes place through a great diversity of business situations, involving a great many characters.

An interesting side effect of conversational role-playing in the business context is a diminished self-consciousness. Those who feel restricted by a reluctance to reveal themselves will be less inhibited in a make-believe situation that lets them act out some of the dreams they are working for. Listening and speaking skills can be effectively enhanced for ALL language students by this course: from the conversation behind the mask to a more relaxed approach to communication of any type, there is but a short step. Motivation is reinforced by the added dimension of a product, the language, that can be recycled next year, on the job. The language learner never loses sight of the crucial necessity to be clear, accurate and understood if he knows he is transmitting an order that translates in terms of dollars - francs - and if it involves his commission. Perhaps the culture shock usually awaiting the students after graduation will be lessened by the fact that they have play-acted, evaluated, sometimes been puzzled by problems and dilemnas arising "pour de vrai" - for real - in the day of a career woman, or a "cadre" (executive), all while Jean-Paul works for the French Nabisco, or when Pulverix new CEO faces the necessity to expand, modernize both plant and management, and urge dad's old associate to retire!

Reading and writing skills can be secured, polished, and fully developed as well by a summary of an article from the "Nouvel Economiste" as by exercises based on the excerpts found in some of our literay anthologies. As a matter of fact, the very objective, factual way things are related, ideas are described, and projects proposed, might seem less overwhelming, less impossible to emulate than some of the beautiful prose usually chosen for those anthologies. Quite a few precise examples come to my mind: in an intermediate texbook, the description of the butcher's shop, as seen through the imagination of young Colette baffled the students. It did not seem possible to compare veal kidneys to brown fruit nestled in quilted cotton, nor to marvel upon the irridescent play of light on the beef lungs happily swinging in the breeze from their meat hooks, comparing the texture to some flower petals - begonias to be exact! At 9:15 in the morning these images made them queasy. I suspect even the French majors could enjoy a more sedate approach to refining their writing skills.

The basic exercise in writing for this course has traditionnally been the business letter, so dependent on grammatical correction that it will urge all students to review the rules of agreement, the conjugations, the necessary subjunctive, the conditional used in many polite formulas. The idea that we are showing our expertise to our business correspondants - "noblesse oblige" - will prod the student to check more carefully than he might do on the letter to peers or family from the traditional approach: money and success are involved in presentations. Press releases, memos to superiors, reports to various departments of a firm, and all variations on business communications rely on verbal accuracy and precision of thought.

Some of the very fine articles from the Nouvel Economiste originally chosen for the benefit of the Business students offered me the opportunity to point out idioms galore, grammatical structures seemingly out of the common - and yet so often used in spoken French. A very polished expository prose in those articles not only does not rely too much on rarely used tenses, but nevertheless brings to the classroom those metaphors grasped with ease by the students' French counterparts. We are not quite dealing with the typical surrealist image found in Sartre's La Nausée (Nausea). In fact we are dealing with ways of expressing thoughts that rely on images related to contemporary French culture, daily life and changing values. We are learning French by living through their press the problems that the French are facing now.

Yes of course... Balzac did innundate us with tales of business successes and failures, and introduced us to characters whose cynicism and obsessions are still quite relevant to this day, but to teach French culture to our French majors just by the past would be limited. The calculating machine of Pascal is as far removed from today's computer as the 19th century's speculations are from the techniques and goals of today's PDG's (CEO) and Cadres (upper level executives), let alone electronics and High Tech trailblazers.

So... I enjoyed explaining the warlike vocabulary of a little article whose title might be in French "The demise of the sweater", or perhaps the "routing" of the sweater. In it we learned about the black market of the knitting industry: it was funny to visualize fifteen million sweaters traveling all over Europe with a label saying "made in Italy", an Italy they never saw, knitted of recycled garbage. There was a sense of the epic that led us to evoke the Chanson de Roland, as it brought into our minds "the multicolored batalions of sweaters marching in perfect order". When the author of the article ushered in the "mastodonts" of heavy artillery, no doubt the large firms crushing the little footmen, we were experiencing first hand the literary device commonly known as parody. The point is that we find in the publications traditionally used to enhance the Business language courses an untapped source of relevant material that lends itself marvelously to the job at hand - that is to sensitize the student to the precision and subtleties of expression usually associated with literary text analysis. I have xeroxed for the class several articles of the type of the sweater market story, and it has provided an informal way to probe into idiomatic French as it takes its roots in Culture - with a big "C" or a little "c". An article on Castorama - a chain of stores we might call handyman's heaven - was the occasion of a reference to "le castor", nickname of Simone de Beauvoir. And so on... So far each article has been a treasure box to bring into focus real French life. Why not these articles rather than the very sad story of the young father who sets out to go and drown his severely handicapped little son, a story to be found in the section meant to illustrate family life of one of our better literary anthologies? Trade magazines bring us to discuss the new approach to saturday shopping as a family outing, as well as marketing strategies, product packaging and displays, and publicity ads.

The unexpected bonus is that we are killing two birds with one stone, perhaps even more than two birds, since from the linguistic dimension we go not only to the commercial but also to the cultural. A solid awareness of the changing values and goals of the new generation emerge from trade publications. From the linguistic and cultural components, we go one step further. We approach the crucial concept of GLOBAL awareness, quite hard to come across in most conventional texts, and in the age of the multinationals it is a major area of concern. In an interesting article of the "French Review" of February 1984, Sanford Dugan mentions a survey that reveals that Foreign

Language majors are low on a scale when measured against Math., Science, and Social Sciences majors in their global knowledge of world issues. Surely this French major who, in his/her upper level FRE 215 or FRE 216 will have been asked to regularly consult the copies of "L'Expansion" made available to them at our library, and to report orally to the class, or to write a report using it as a source, will have seen the eye-catching layouts, the colourful diagrams dealing with the relationships or comparisons between all countries, from every continent, maps of the francophone countries in their relations with the rest of the world, statistics that stress the balance of power, the precarious equilibrium of a forever changing political design.

The role of the Foreign Language teacher as primordial in developing global awareness is explored in depth by a team of writers in a 1981 Northeast Conference Report. The list of the factors that had in the past inhibited educators is enlightening: by telling you what not to do, the authors point out the way towards an emphasis on the notion of interdepency, acceptance of others' traditions, the need for changing curricula, and increased flexibility, plus the appeal and impact of authentic material and realia - all this a characteristic of the Business Language course. Such courses give the instructor the opportunity to develop within the group a vivid interest for those countries outside the hexagon, and to explore the ties with the old metropole, as well as their connections with the rest of the world: the students this year have prepared reports on the marketing and management of the multinationals in the third world.

An objection may be raised in terms of goals: because of having accepted other majors, are we washing down the business component of the course? We do not think so. Since self-motivation is no doubt the only way to Foreign language acquisition - outside of God and mothers - it is well understood that the business students will do ALL the assignments the course demands. The non-business majors were allowed certain substitutions: they did all the work from the texts we used, as it provided structured grammar and conversational skills reinforcement. But for their creative compositions and the two oral reports built into the syllabus, they were allowed to pick subjects either either from their field of expertise, or from broader topics pertaining to current events. The "Journal Français d"Amérique" was a favorite.

This bring me to my last point: the very positive aspect offered by the venture. A sampling of the group's topics ranged from an enthusiastic description of Van Gogh's major works with slides, a report on the tunnel sous la Manche - under the Channel tunnel- by the Ed. major, a book review on Madame Bovary, an African safari travel report, to name just a few. The topics can be on the psychology of management, a detailed analysis of a publicity campaign, or the assessment of the aesthetic qualities of French ads.

In a world where the demands of technological expertise leave little time to pursue Liberal Arts interests, the B.B.A. candidates were privileged to hear about something beyond their field. Bridges were built between groups whose paths never cross during the last two years of College.

The Liberal Arts student, who has the tendency to belittle the "intellectual" aspect of business studies will discover the high level of sophistication of the material to be absorbed by his counterpart, whon he often thought of as less "enlightened" , as oral assignments encouraged the students to share the knowledge acquired in their business courses. A very humbling experience that shows that all intellectuals need not be philosophers, or writers. The business student, cutting his way through jungles of formulas, figures and statistics, with no other machete than long hours of study, and prone to think that success or failure is mostly a matter of numbers, six figures income, and power, will become aware of some compensations in store for him. I'll have to admit to a funny case - a while back, in a French lit. course - when a business student after reading "The Confessions" switched to landscape architecture, telling me Jean-Jacques Rousseau had done it for him.

Club Med, despite the ad, may not be the only antidote for civilisation. Perhaps civilisation is the antidote for a pervasive organisational environment. Those who can relate to a Colette short story, a George Brassens message, a Goscinny-Sempé or Jacques Faisant cartoon, Astérix, a French film, or a beautiful Yourcenar oriental tale, and so on, will find themselves on the road to a lower blood pressure, and richer inner life. In a curriculum so stringent it leaves few - if any - electives, the business student will find the opportunity to enjoy at least a few facets of imagination and creativity. For him/her, the chance to escape from the reality of work into any Liberal Arts discipline is as important as it is for the Liberal Arts major to see what is doing in the business world. Last Friday. may 1st , the Wall Street Journal reveals that business men's severest complain against business reporters was their lack of business knowledge.

Last but not least: culture is a concept that is forever changing its components. The development of a country - be it France, Spain, a South American nation, an African territory, Japan or Australia, is crucially altered by its economic and industrial evolution. The business publications bring this knowledge. A French major must know why the cliché so often photographed until recently of the chubby man on the bike, béret on head, and baguette under his arm is totally anachronistic. France is no more only the land of cheese, wine and the cathedrals, but the land of the T.G.V., Ariane, the Concorde, and a remarkable nuclear expertise - as yesterday's workshop brilliantly illustrated . But then, Claude Simon, a French writer has just won the Nobel prize! So, the coin still has two sides. To quote Montaigne again, as "everyman carries within himself the entire form of human nature", so do all samples of a language lead to the knowledge of a country, of a people, of a culture, if we look hard enough, and deep enough.

Michele.O. Newman
Pace University
Pleasantville, N.Y. 10570

Business French & the Liberal Arts

List of helpful documents

1.- "French For Business And International Trade", edited by David O'Connell last issue particular informative. Spring 1987. Vol. III, No.1

2.- A.D.F.L. Bulletins - most issues contain a report on Business Language. for instance: January 1986: William J. Carney. "Integrating French into the traditional Foreign Language Curriculum: a marriage of convenience that works." - January 1987: 3 reports.

3.- NORTHEAST CONFERENCE REPORTS: the various issues do cover a broad range of articles on cooperation and collaboration betwee the disciplines. Your chairpersons may have them on hand.

4.- Extra books.(excerpts xeroxed to be handed out)

1. Brémond, J. et Geledan, A. Dictionnaire économique et social. Paris Hatier, 1981.
2. Bernard, Y. et Colli, J.C. Vocabulaire économique et financier. Paris. Editions du Seuil, 1976.
3. L'Economie de A. a Z. "Les Echos" jan.11, 1980- may 29, 1981. Paris Ramsay, 1982.

5.- MAGAZINES from France - collected on last day of languages conferences' when exhibitors are generous. (Continental Book Co. - MLA dec 1986)

1. Direction et Gestion des entreprises. 1986 No.1
2. BANQUE. Octobre 1986. No.465
3. Le conseiller du COMMERCE EXTERIEUR. Sept/Oct. 1986
4. Afrique Industrie. 1er Octobre 1986.
5. MICRO SYSTEMS. Oct. 1986 (informatique)
6. Mondes en développement.
7. Jeune Afrique Magazine.

(to name just a few. Helpful to get students interested in authentic material)

AND SO ON... I am sure you all have such a list, and I will be happy to hear your suggestions. Thank you.

FRANCE AND WORLD TRADE: PROBLEMS AND OPPORTUNITIES

by

J. Sanford Dugan, Ph.D.
Foreign Language and Bilingual Studies
Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, Michigan 48197

France and World Trade: Problems and Opportunities

by J. Sanford Dugan, Ph.D.

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Introduction

France's place in the world economy can be indicated in different ways. For instance, of the 160 or so member nations of the United Nations Organization, only about two dozen belong to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development. These are, of course, the more advanced of the more or less open-market oriented countries, as opposed to the planned-economy countries of socialist or communist orientation. Of the OECD countries, France has the fourth highest Gross Domestic Product. She is one of the seven who meet yearly in the Economic Summit of developed nations. A year and a half ago, France was one of the five countries involved in the Plaza agreement that has brought on the dramatic decline of the U.S. dollar and its consequences. One of the founding members of the European Common Market, France is a leader in trade within the Community and outside; in terms of exports, she stands fifth, behind the U.S., West Germany, Japan, and the U.K.

Historically, many countries have found it necessary to export in order to survive. Less-developed countries tend to export raw materials. More advanced small countries can depend on manufactured goods. For some large countries, the internal market is large enough to absorb production, and, until recently, export was simply a way of liquidating excess production. The exporting countries and the large more self-sufficient countries, coming to realize the necessity of instilling some kind of order in world trade, are beginning to deal with the difficult problems of government role in managing the economy and, especially, the issue of openness of home markets to foreign competition. The world's experience with various forms of free trade, on the one hand, and protectionism, on the other, has been mixed.

The present paper is an attempt to examine a few aspects of France's experience with international trade. It is shaped, in part, by preoccupations with preparing teaching materials and takes the following form: 1. an historical glance at France's experience with more open trade; 2. an exercise in analyzing figures on today's economy; and 3. some brief remarks on attempts to modernize the perception of France in the eyes of prospective clients, in particular, the United States.

Historical glimpse of France and foreign trade

It has been estimated that during the eighteenth century France gradually increased her total share of world trade to equal that of Great Britain, although the latter was considerably less populated at that time. In terms of the proportion of total output, French foreign trade in that century hovered between 8 and 12 per cent. In 1786 France negotiated a trade agreement with Great Britain. The immediate effect was not particularly favorable, and long-term effects did not materialize because of the wrenching years of the Revolution and the Empire. In Great Britain, by contrast, international trade played some role in capitalizing the industrialization that transformed that society.

After Napoleon, the years up to 1860 show an overall expansion of the French economy, but the role of international trade was not strong enough to qualify as the motor of production. Another trade treaty with England, signed in 1860, marked a period of weakness and the beginning of a slow delcine that continued for a quarter of a century. While the elements were much more complex than can be treated here, it is clear that openings to foreign trade can carry risks. On the other hand, jumping ahead to the 1930's, the experience of most western countries in that decade showed that extreme protectionism and isolationism were no w[illegible]o avoid economic difficulties or even war.

It is in the period following World War II and particularly in the sixties and early seventies that France knew a sustained economic growth that she had not experienced before. From 1960 through 1972 the growth rate was second only to that of Japan among all the OECD countries. This period coincides with the launching of the Common Market, and the rate of foreign trade, both exports and imports, increased markedly as well. Despite the crises brought on by the oil schocks of the 1970's, economic output has increased overall, and the level of foreign trade has remained high. It is estimated that for 1985 the proportion of France's Gross National Product attributable to exports is 29%; while for the U.S. it is 7.7%. Similarly imports for France account for 26% of GNP; while for the U.S. the figure is 11.2%.

By way of illustrating the importance of the Common Market for France and for her partners, here is a passage from a French newspaper of March of this year marking the twenty-fifth anniversary of the signing of the treaty of Rome. (See handout, p. 1)

Analysis of Present-Day Situation

In order to give a perspective on France's present-day situation in world trade, we may examine some tables presented in the Panorama de l'économie française, by Rémy Arnaud. The accompanying questions are intended as teaching exercises to elucidate some of the principal points. (See handout, pp. 2-4.)

Perceptions of France

At a recent conference on French Business in 1987 held at Harvard University, several themes emerged from remarks by various speakers. The paternalistic tradition of France and other European countries is seen in the following four aspects: 1. Business is male dominated; 2. State control of business is extensive; 3. French society is governed more by the search for security than by the taking of risks that may bring high rewards; 4. While technically very sophisticated, French business is less adept at distribution of goods. Now, it was clear that the presenters were anxious to point out that there are signs that these elements are changing. For instance, on the question of male domionation, one stated that the proportion of women enrolled in the French equivalent of the Masters in Business Administration was 35%; this may bode well for the future of women in French business. Secondly, on the issue of extensive state control, the recently appointed Director General for Industry of the French Ministry of Industry, Monsieur Jacques Maisonrouge, made several points: First, and, perhaps most importantly, price controls (some of which have been in effect since 1945) were dropped in 1986 on all products except pharmaceuticals. Second, corporate taxes are being reduced from 50 to 45%; this should allow 11 billion francs to be turned toward investment and R & D. Third, the State is relinquishing control of important industrial companies. Saint Gobain and Paribas were "privatized" in 1986; others are in the process this year or slated for the near future. The third traditional problem that I mentioned above, the orientation toward a search for security is manifested in many ways. For example, French are reluctant to move in order to find employment. Furthermore, social ideals, reflected in the educational system, encourage people of talent to seek employment serving the state. The advanced schools of administration lead to government positions. In contrast to this, Monsieur Maisonrouge notes that the present government is attempting to reduce the civil service budget; this will not, of course, change French society, but at least the trend is away from expanding government service. Other speakers stated that, at least in the graduate business schools, young people are taking international courses and young executives are seeking possibilities for experience abroad. The fourth generalization, on technical expertise and lack of marketing, is countered by speakers who cite the growing interest in the U.S. model M.B.A., which has a strong marketing component; furthermore, there seems to be a growing sensitivity to improving the image of French products by furnishing better after sales service.

Monsieur Maisonrouge, in collaboration with commercial councillors of the French government in the U.S., has established a task force to improve the image of France in the U.S.

For some time the image of France has been governed not only by her rich cultural heritage, but also by certain products she has sold abroad. After the fine arts and literature, the three F's of France are Food, Fashion, and Fragrance. The tangible items that one identifies with France are restaurants, wines, gourmet menus, or the world of high fashion and the perfumes available in department stores. More recently, efforts are being made to show that France is playing a leadership role in other areas as well. For instance, in transportation, the Airbus, developed by a European consortium, has won important orders against American competition; few people are aware that for several years, the list of exports from France to the U.S. has been headed by helicopters, airplanes, and airplane motors. Furthermore, the fast train , now serving several regions of France, is gaining interested inquiries from other countries, including the U.S. In space technology, the rocket Ariane, also produced by Europeans, is filling in a gap left by recent NASA difficulties. The recently concluded Franco-American accord on the patenting of tests for AIDS has given prominence to several Frenchmen and recognition to French scientific programmes. In generation of electrical power by use of nuclear energy France is the world leader, with 60% of her electricity generated by nuclear plants. In mass telecommunications, the success of the minitel has led to interest from other countries. Much remains to be done if France wants to improve its present position in the U.S. moket, where currently she stands ninth in the list of suppliers with less than three per cent of the market.

Conclusion

Historically, France has known varying degrees of success with foreign trade. At present, she is strongly committed to open trade with the eleven other members of the European Economic Community. Nevertheless, there are markets beyond Europe where the future may hold great rewards for an outward looking country.

France and World Trade: Problems and Opportunities

by J. Sanford Dugan, Ph.D.

Handout material prepared for a presentation at the E.M.U. Conference on Languages and Communication for World Business and the Professions, Friday, May 8, 1987

Dans le *Quotidien de Paris*, M. Philippe Tesson signe en première page un éditorial intitulé «Europe: la grande surface à trente ans»: «L'Europe a trente ans aujourd'hui: l'Europe? Si l'on peut dire . . . ce qu'on va célébrer dans les heures qui viennent, à la faveur de la CEE, n'est que le résidu d'une grande idée qui s'est réduite à un grand marché. La crise économique a réveillé des égoïsmes nationaux qui n'attendaient qu'un prétexte. Et la menace d'une prochaine révision de la donnée stratégique internationale va pour longtemps replier chaque état européen dans ses propres intérêts. Le rêve politique européen peut définitivement se refermer. Alors, reste le grand marché. Ne boudons pas: c'est un acquis important qui a de surcroît donné aux Européens une conscience individuelle de leur puissance, de leur capacité à produire, à vendre, à vivre. Le regret est que cette conscience ne soit pas encore collective. Si quelque chose est possible, c'est qu'elle le devienne». (Sources: Agence France-Presse, Ambassade de France)

1. "Grande surface" veut dire
    - A. un pays à superficie étendue.
    - B. l'Europe occidentale.
    - C. un supermarché à grande diversité de produits.
    - D. un centre commercial composé de magasins divers.

2. La "grande idée" est
    - A. le Saint Empire romain.
    - B. l'Empire français.
    - C. l'Empire britannique.
    - D. l'unité politique d'Europe.

3. La "révision de la donnée stratégique internationale" implique
    - A. les négociations États-Unis - URSS sur le désarmenent.
    - B. l'implantation d'armes nucléaires en Europe.
    - C. l'augmentation du commerce est-ouest en Europe.
    - D. les nouvelles négociations du GATT.

4. En fin de compte, Monsieur Tesson croit que l'unité d'Europe
    - A. s'est accomplie.
    - B. est impossible.
    - C. pourrait se réaliser.
    - D. arrivera probablement.

BALANCE DES TRANSACTIONS COURANTES DE LA FRANCE AVEC L'EXTÉRIEUR - 1984

(données brutes en millions de francs)

Commerce Extérieur	- 32 138
Exportations	+ 806 250
Importations	- 841 448
Négoce	+ 3 060
Services	**+ 24 460**
Frais accessoires sur marchandises	- 12 884
Transports maritimes	- 3 295
Transports autres	+ 4 915
Assurances	- 1 051
Grands travaux	+ 11 637
Coopération technique	+ 14 246
Travail à façon	+ 2 613
Brevets et redevances	- 4 284
Service de gestion	+ 5 862
Intérêts, dividendes	- 12 949
Salaires et autres revenus du travail	- 5 689
Voyages	+ 27 573
Services divers	- 894
Recettes et dépenses du Gouv. français	- 2 679
Recettes et dépenses des Gouv. étrangers	+ 639
Autres biens et services	**+ 32 086**
Total biens et services	**+ 24 408**

(Source: Rémy Arnaud)

5. Par rapport au solde du commerce extérieur, le compte des services
   A. représente une perte pour la France.
   B. joue un rôle négligeable.
   C. compense les trois quarts d'un déficit.
   D. dépasse largement le solde commercial.

6. Nommez les deux postes des services qui accusent le plus grand déficit.

   ________________ ________________

7. Parmi les activités ci-dessous, citez-en trois où la France en vend plus aux étrangers qu'elle n'en achète.

A. Transfert de biens par bateau
B. Tourisme.
C. Financement de capitaux
D. Constructions (bâtiments, routes, etc.)
E. Ingénierie et conseils d'ordre technologique
F. Couverture de risques (e.g., d'accident, de maladie, de négligence, etc.)

FOURNISSEURS ET CLIENTS EN 1985
(en milliards de francs)

Fournisseurs		Clients	
1. RFA	159,0	1. RFA	130,5
2. Italie	96,8	2. Italie	95,4
3. Belgique / Luxembourg	82,3	3. Etats-Unis	75,4
4. Royaume-Uni	79,0	4. Belgique / Luxembourg	74,0
5. Etats-Unis	73,2	5. Royaume-Uni	71,6
6. Pays-Bas	58,5	6. Pays-Bas	42,6
7. Espagne	36,5	7. Suisse	36,5
8. Japon	26,9	8. Espagne	29,4
9. Union Soviétique	22,0	9. Algérie	21,8
10. Algérie	20,7	10. Union Soviétique	17,0
11. Suisse	20,3	11. Suède	13,0
12. Nigéria	15,3	12. Arabie Saoudite	11,0
13. Norvège	15,2	13. Japon	10,7
14. Suède	14,4	14. Canada	9,5
15. Irak	12,2	15. Maroc	9,2
16. Arabie Saoudite	10,8	16. Egypte	9,0
17. Brésil	10,0	17. Danemark	7,2
18. Cameroun	7,3	18. Grèce	6,8
19. Canada	7,0	19. Tunisie	6,5
20. Iran	7,0	20. Autriche	6,3
21. Libye	6,9	21. Portugal	6,2
22. Irlande	6,9	22. Irak	6,1
23. Portugal	6,8	23. Cameroun	5,4
24. Danemark	6,6	24. Inde	5,3
25. Autriche	6,4	25. Norvège	5,0
26. Maroc	6,1	26. Turquie	5,0
27. Afrique du Sud	5,7	27. Nigeria	5,0
28. Gabon	5,6	28. Singapour	4,4
29. Finlande	5,5	29. Australie	4,2
30. Australie	5,5	30. Réunion	4,2
31. Mexique	5,3	31. Corée du Sud	4,1
32. Côte d'Ivoire	5,2	32. Côte d'Ivoire	4,1
33. Chine	4,5	33. Guyane	4,0
34. Grèce	4,4	34. Irlande	4,0
35. Abu Dhabi	4,4	35. Finlande	3,8
36. Egypte	3,8	36. Hong Kong	3,7
37. Tunisie	3,7	37. Indonésie	3,7
38. Taïwan	3,6	38. Brésil	3,6
39. Inde	3,2	39. Gabon	3,6
40. Qatar	3,2	40. Yougoslavie	3,5
Total 40 pays	**91,2 %**	**Total 40 pays**	**88,5 %**
Total général import	**962,6**	**Total général export**	**871,6**

8. Quelle est la part des pays de la CEE dans les exportations de la France vers l'étranger? A. négligeable B. le tiers C. la moitié D. les trois quarts

9. Le Brésil et l'Australie sont considérés de vastes pays d'avenir. Quel est leur rang respectif parmi les clients de la France?
Brésil _____ Australie _____

10. Quelle est la proportion de leurs achats sur le total des exportations françaises? A. <1 p. cent B. 5 p. cent C. 15 p. cent D. 15 p. cent

11. Quelles leçons peut-on tirer de cela?

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3a

Fournisseurs et clients de la France dans la CEE en 1985

Fournisseurs		Clients	
1. RFA	159.0	1. RFA	130.5
2. Italie	96.8	2. Italie	95.4
3. Belg./Lux.	82.3	4. Belg./Lux.	74.0
4. Roy. Uni	79.0	5. Roy. Uni	71.6
6. Pays-Bas	58.5	6. Pays.-Bas	42.6
22. Irlande	6.9	17. Danemark	7.2
24. Danemark	6.6	18. **Grèce**	6.8
34. Grèce	4.4	34. Irlande	4.0
	493.5		432.1

493,5 ÷ 962,6 = 51,3%

432,1 ÷ 871,6 = 49,6%

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LA BALANCE COMMERCIALE FRANÇAISE PAR GROUPES DE PRODUITS EN 1985*

(en milliards de francs)

	Importations (CAF)	Exportations (FAB)	Solde	Taux de couverture
Agro-alimentaire				
1. Produits agricoles + produits de la forêt et de la pêche	52,9	74,7	+ 21,8	141,2
2. Produits des industries agricoles et alimentaires	67,3	76,6	+ 9,3	113,8
Energie				
3. Produits énergétiques	213,5	33,0	− 180,5	15,5
Industrie				
4. Matières premières minérales	10,6	2,1	− 8,5	19,8
5. Métaux et produits du travail des métaux	91,9	105,4	+ 13,5	114,7
6. Produits chimiques et demi-produits divers	135,3	137,5	+ 2,2	101,6
7. Biens d'équipement professionnel	172,0	198,8	+ 26,6	115,6
8. Articles de ménage	19,5	10,2	− 7,3	52,3
9. Automobiles / cycles	36,3	48,8	+ 12,5	132,8
10. Pièces détachées de véhicules et matériel utilitaire	31,7	51,2	+ 19,5	161,5
11. Biens de consommation courante (non alimentaires)	128,7	124,2	− 4,5	96,5
12. Divers	3,0	9,0	+ 6,0	300,0
Total	**962,7**	**871,6**	**− 91,1**	**90,5**

Source : ministère de l'Economie, des Finances et du Budget. Douanes.

* Non compris le matériel militaire ce qui explique la différence avec le tableau de la page 31.

12. Quel est le tendon d'Achille de la France? Comment expliquer cette faiblesse?

13. Connaissez-vous des efforts pour remédier à cette faiblesse? Expliquer.

14. Le secteur agro-alimentaire est excédentaire depuis plusieurs années (6,75 milliards de francs en 1979; 31,1 milliards en 1985). Connaissez-vous des problèmes qu'a apporté ce succès?

Références:

Jean-Charles Asselain. Histoire économique de la France du XVIIIème siècle à nos jours. 2 vols. Paris: Éditions du Seuil, 1984

Rémy Arnaud. Panorama de l'économie française. 2ème édition. Paris: Bordas, 1986

Nouvelles de France: sélection hebdomadaire de dépêches de l'Agence France-Presse et du service de presse de l'Ambassade de France. Consulat Général de France à Détroit.

CAPITALIZING ON THE ENTREPRENEURIAL DREAM IN BUSINESS FRENCH

by

Gilles Bousquet
University of Wisconsin-Madison

CAPITALIZING ON THE ENTREPRENEURIAL DREAM IN BUSINESS FRENCH

The average business French course devotes one or more sessions to the forms of business organization in France. However fascinating the various statutes of partnerships and companies may be, an introductory lecture can become too technical and abstract to an audience of undergraduates, most of whom are French majors with little business background and even less work experience. Fortunately, these days young people have a genuine interest in business enterprises, and somewhat of an entrepreneurial spirit.

This paper is an attempt to design a unit that could take advantage of the new enthusiasm for business ventures as well as provide some insight into practical aspects of starting and operating a small enterprise.

In the course of that unit, students are invited to put elements of commercial law into practice, to think of business in a more comprehensive and practical sense,to take into consideration several sides of business operations, from capital investment to commercial strategy through company organization and the management of human resources.

These goals are to be achieved through the creation of a fictional company. Each step in the establishment process will require the students to discuss various aspects of their emerging company, to come to a decision and make the necessary move, legal and otherwise, as well as reflect upon the company's economic environment and long term strategy.

Another key objective to be met is greater language fluency and better proficiency in order to function in business situations in a foreign language. To this effect, the whole unit is an attempt to create intense role playing, generate discussions based on and calling upon a special terminology, and handle some key concepts of French business that are now part of a real-life situation.

CLASS SET-UP

The unit takes up about 5 to 6 sessions. If commercial company law has not been broached, a short lecture with hand outs highlighting the main forms of companies is necessary. At any rate, capsules of information have to be carefully distributed so that students have time to assimilate the new concepts. During the discussions focusing on one case in particular, more detailed information will be needed, as students bring up new questions.

The class is divided into groups for the entire unit. Short lectures and group discussions during which the instructor is on call, alternate. Proposals from each group are then presented, discussed and one solution is decided upon, before carrying to the next step.

The instructor can illustrate certain steps through a dialogue on the same subject to be acted out. Some improvised role-playing may also nicely conclude a particular session.

The "one-step-at-a-time" approach is important. So is the discussion of the various choices and the reason for the final decision. Essential also is the students'ability (and willingness) to impersonate the company founders and immerse themselves in the situation presented. The free play of imagination can spur a great deal of enthusiasm among the participants.

OUTLINE

This unit simulates the creation of the company, from its inception to the day when production and sales begin. Very often, a few individuals in the class have dreamt of innovative product or services.......And, fortunately as M. Herblay points out in an article entitled "Le créateur, ce marginal", published in L'expansion, 17 feb.1.march 1984, the lure of money is not the primary motivation of a company founder...

It is best to start with some of the students' own ideas and elaborate on them with the class. For those who have spent a substantial amount of time in France, it is worth exploring what they found was lacking in France and that they would like to introduce.

Today, however let us assume that the business idea has emerged. Four major aspects will have to be considered.
First comes the legal form to be chosen for the company; then follows the establishment process per se, namely the various steps to be taken for the company to be officially registered and then be allowed to operate; at the same time, while all the papers are being filed, the founders have to consider the whole project and decide upon a suitable organization in which the firm may operate smoothly; Lastly, in the final stage, the associates need to put together a consistent and tentative marketing

strategy, based on some research on the firm's environment. At this point, the new company's product, its competitors, its channels of distribution have to be studied, to lead to an initial promotion campaign. In a nutshell, the four aspects to be investigated and discussed are: legal form; registration process; company organization; commercial strategy.

The program outlined above, if carried out in detail, may well take half of the semester, and require skills way beyond our liberal arts and foreign language background. I hope to convince you today that with the help of a few practical sources, some consultation with business professionals, an attractive package can be put together. I would also insist on the great flexibility of such a unit. It can be adapted to various levels of language proficiency and business knowledge.

At the lower end of the spectrum, it may be sufficient to have the groups identify the main steps to be taken and give out more information and create exercises around these steps. A great number of dialogues, business letters and memos can be generated; vocabulary exercises can focus on the new terms, for instance partnerships, limited liability company, stock company, board of directors, shareholder.

At the other end of the spectrum, for an audience of advanced undergraduates in their second or third semester of business

French, such a unit may require several weeks and indeed cover or provide a review of several items on the syllabus. A lot of free play is to be expected here; it may become even more interesting if the instructor can assign those students working on a business major, such as marketing, specific tasks. They could be in charge of presenting an example of market study, preferably one on which they themselves have worked to set some objectives and propose an outline for the new firm's marketing research. Similarly, students in accounting and finance, communication arts, advertising, as well as anyone who has business experience can be called upon.

THE IDEA

For our case, today, let us imagine, an American named Matthew (Matt), for example, who works for a medium-sized American company that manufactures and distributes a line of sports equipment (clothes, shoes, and equipment). The company has innovative products, an open mind and decides to distribute its products in France. Matt, of course would have an interest in France; by the way, he spent a year abroad and his best French friend, Jacques, is now in business. He is an associate in a consulting firm and Matt is to meet with him and explore the various options for his firm's expansion. Matt's company, because of its limited resources is interested in linking up with some French partners to share in the initial investment. Matt's company plans on contributing about FF. 200.000 .

As indicated by the preliminary research, the French market looks promising. Matt then goes to France to make contacts with Jacques to consult him about the whole project. This initial step can be summarized in a dialogue featuring Matt's first meeting with his friend Jacques, accompanied by Nicole, an other associate, in which the venture is set forth . This dialogue can serve as an introduction to the "piece de résistance", which is the choice of a legal form for the future company.

THE COMPANY'S LEGAL FORM.

At this point, the students should be asked to review their notes on company statutes and/or study the appropriate handout. The sole proprietorship being excluded, the main differences in the company forms deal with the amount of start-up capital, the way it is divided, consequently the managerial power, the liability issue and the legal requirements in terms of control (audit) and disclosure of information.

Commercial companies in France can be either partnerships (société de personnes) or stock companies (société de capitaux), with the exception of the limited liability company (société à responsabilité limitée ou S.a.r.l.).

Partnerships can be general (société en nom collectif), or limited (société en commandite simple). On paper, there exists a limited partnership by shares (société en commandite par actions), which is very rare. In the general partnership, all the partners are merchants (commerçants); there is no minimum capital requirement; all the partners may be managers; consent of all of them is necessary if shares were to be sold; the partners' liability, however, is unlimited; no financial information is required to be made publicly available; cost of registration is minimal; the health and unemployment coverage of the partners is limited. Registration is estimated to be at least FF. 500 per partner.

As for the stock company, the founders, shareholders must be at least seven; the minimum capital requirement for a non-publicly listed company is FF 250.000; (at least, 25% of the share capital must be paid up at the start, the rest within 5 years); the capital is divided in equal shares with a minimum value of FF loo; the Société Anonyme is managed by a board of directors (Conseil d'Administration) which chooses a Chairman/person (Président Directeur Général); shareholders' liability is limited to their contribution; within 6 months of end of fiscal year, there must be a shareholders'meeting to approve the financial statements (balance sheets, profit and loss account). Cost of registration is at least FF. 5000.

In a limited liability company (S.a.r.l.),the minimum capital requirement is FF. 250.000; there has to be a minimum of 2 shareholders (a maximum of 50); the shareholders appoint one or several managers to run the company; shares may not be transferred to third parties unless approved by members representing three fourth of the equity. every year a shareholders'meeting has to be called to approve the annual financial statements; as with the S.a., within 6 months from end of fiscal year, financial statement have to filed with the clerk of the local commercial court where they are available for public access. The cost of registration for such a company is, at minimum, FF 3000.

Given this information and the case under consideration, the first discussion session will be devoted to the advantages and disadvantages of each business form. What form should matt.

choose? To recap, a chart with the main categories to consider can be drawn on the board, namely capital, shareholders, management, liability, initial cost and establishment process.

Beyond the legal considerations, the groups should examine power of decision, control of the company's equity and flexibility for management purposes but also, possible expansion.

This exercise can be assigned on its own as an illustration of a lecture on company organization; several examples of business projects can be given for the students to consider; each may lean towards one form rather than another. These examples can be taken from books; more importantly, though, if the instructor has any opportunity to go to France, he/she may want to contact several small or medium-sized businesses or various organizations, such Chambers of Commerce, or even friends and their "relations", to collect information on some businesses to be used as examples.

THE ESTABLISHMENT PROCESS

let us now get to the crux of the matter. The business idea and the funds available for the operation, the flexibility and the desire to retain as much power of decision as possible have led Matt. to favor the S.a.r.l. Jacques and Nicole have contacted two people who are very interested in participating in the new company. Why not call them, Hélène Brun and Henri Martin. The latter, by the way, owns several sports shops in various cities. After a first meeting, each agrees to contribute FF 100.000 . They also see good opportunities for a new line of sports wear and equipment to be distributed through sports shops and department stores. The French partners are familiar with this market niche.

Obviously, this unit is only an example and Henri Martin could become Pierre André and be retired, for all that matters.

The groups of students can now impersonate the various founders and the consultants. The establishment can be outlined as presented in document 1. The ratification of the statutes represents a key step. To be registered with the INSEE, Social Security and the Tax administration are the indispensable steps before operations can start. Various exercises are possible for the students to become part of the process; one of them could be to entrust each of the founders with a specific task to be performed before the foundation meeting; one could look into the question of the name; another work on the company headquarter building; one would collect funds and deposit them at the bank. Each student-founder should know what their task entails, possibly have filled out one or several documents, to be prepared for the final meeting at which the statutes are examined, agreed upon, ratified and managers appointed.

Another activity could be for the founders to look into what the various registrations mean, for themselves and for the future employees: for instance, What does URSSAF stand for ? What is its role? This part could be ideal to introduce- in a simplified, yet applied manner- the health, retirement, unemployment system. Furthermore, a short presentation on labor laws - hiring, promoting, labor representation- could also be interesting.

The process has led to the creation of Sportsloisirs, 28, Cours Vitton, 69006 Lyon, S.a.r.l. with a capital of FF 300.000. R.C. Lyon B 4586939. Each share is worth FF 100.000.

While the company file is being processed, intense work is going on. The legal statute is not a guarantee of commercial success. The company operations have to rationally organized and a commercial strategy developped. The students-founders have now to examine what services will be needed for the company to operate smoothly and successfully.

THE COMPANY STRUCTURE

Before attempting to structure their own operation, the founders can be made aware of various company organizations,

through the study of a several company charts or "organigramme" On Document 2 a few examples of company charts are given.
The charts can be supported by a short explanation highlighting the basic needs that a given form fulfills, namely tasks and functions. Each group can be assigned to propose a tentative form after studying the document and the example. Each group will perceive the company's operations in a different light. For instance, how important will manufacturing be? Will Sportsloisirs import, adapt and sell the products of the American company, or will it manufacture the clothes and the equipment, under American License or Know-how in France? If the former solution is chosen, a special division may be necessary to oversee the steady flow of imports and take care of customs, transportation etc...?

Once various questions have been debated, a tentative structure can be displayed. The organigramme of the new company would resemble something like this:

Président Directeur
Général

Directeur adjoint

service commercial

service import-export

service production

service administratif

Once the overall structure has been outlined, each group could be assigned the task of presenting a more detailed chart for each of the main services.

This unit is largely base on the students' capacity to imagine such an operation. As they start to impersonate the various protagonists, they are required to make some choices, from a more business point of view. This is particularly true in the last two sections of the unit when the company organization and the marketing strategy are considered.

For example, if group 4 is assigned to put together the various components of the administrative division, several questions could be given to the students to think about, thus guiding them towards the main function of the administrative division in our company. the financial side and the personnel (or human resources) are still to be examined. The latter function is an important one, for it will deal with hiring, promoting, remunerating, training, as well as with the whole communication aspect in the company. (for instance, facilitate communication through meeting and various other social events within the company).

Accordingly, one could represent the administrative division as follows:

service administratif

comptabilité
budget/ financement
gestion des resources humaines

The same approach can be used for all the other services. Students may be guided through a set of simple questions which should always lead to a graphic representation of what a given division would be like.

COMMERCIAL STRATEGY

The key to success for our company is to find the adequate markets for its product. As a conclusion to this unit, I would like to introduce several topics and questions to be broached , based on readings in marketing and real-life projects.

For clarity's sake, allow me to recap: We, Sportsloisirs, S.a.r.l., are entitled to distribute (and later, may be, even manufacture), a whole line of sports and leisure products: clothes -sweat shirts and T. shirts, warm-up suits, bathing suits, jerseys, shorts, socks- shoes -regular sports shoes, but more importantly jogging shoes with special designs, shoes for basket ball, tennis, soccer and golf- Sportsloisirs, thanks to its American supplier will have a special tennis and golf department.

Consequently, this section of the unit is designed to have the students acquire a better grasp of the marketing dimension of a firm, familiarize themselves with a given terminology, as well as formulate an initial promotion campaign, based on the findings of the marketing research. The very last assignment will be to imagine the ideal advertising spot to reach the targeted consumers, on a given market segment.

The section hinges upon three different steps: one, to acquire a knowledge of the sports and leisure market in France and break it down in terms of segments (the sports teams, sports and leisure associations...), and consumer characteristics (age, socio-professional categories, behavior); the second step will be to look into the channels of distribution; the last one, to choose a point of entry on a market, a line of product to be sold, an advertising campaign to launch the new brand.

A few questions will help bring out the main notions and focus on the new terminology; in addition, a special set of questions can be given to have students apply, let's say the concepts of market segmentation to our company's case. Another exciting way is to ask a student in the class with a major in marketing to direct the class during the sessions devoted to marketing.Moreover, to prepare for the advertising campaign various resources can be used, particularly television spots and newspaper ads; several ads can be compared in order to identify targeted consumers in relation to the messages and the products advertised. Several ads for competing products (cars, or coffee brands, for instance) can underline the relationship between message,audience,consumers and product. These ads, particularly, the T.V. ones are always very successful and create some exciting moments in class.

CONCLUSION

This unit generates more and more excitement and a growing sense of common purposes among the groups involved. As the sessions pass, one can sense a deeper desire to have this company off the ground and successful. In putting this unit together my utmost desire was to steer away from a business French class that is a letter writing in French in disguise. My aim was to branch off to a different type of syllabus in which business terminology and concepts link up with society and culture when seen from within a living organism; the enterprise.

I see our survival as a field of language studies directly linked to our capacity to become that indispensable link in providing students in the fields of Business and Economics with that linguistic and cultural knowledge and awareness, now a crucial part of today's dramatically needed international expertise.

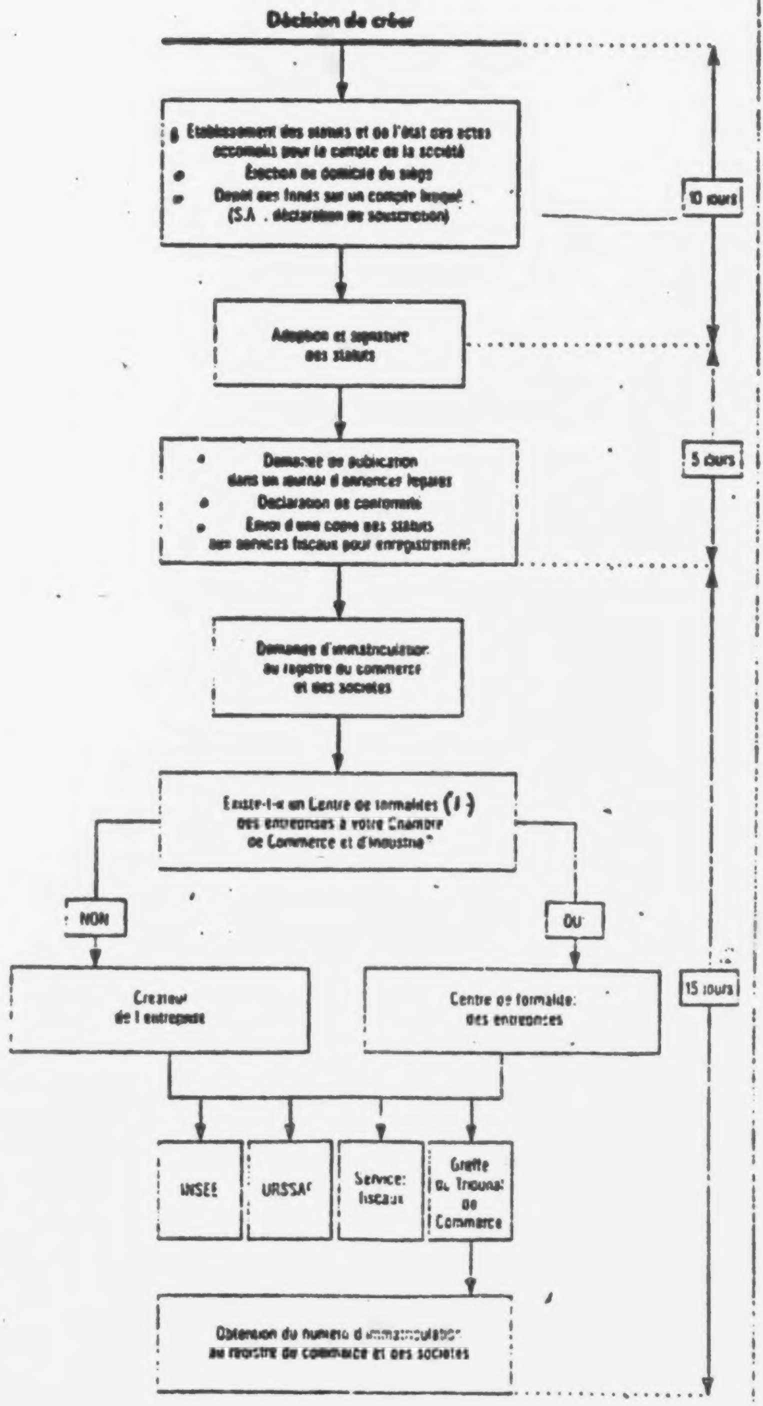
Gilles Bousquet

University of Wisconsin-Madison

~ Document 1 ~

Annexe 1

PROCÉDURE DE CRÉATION D'ENTREPRISE EN VIGUEUR DEPUIS LE 1er JANVIER 1985


Décision de créer
Établissement des statuts et de l'état des actes accomplis pour le compte de la société
Élection de domicile du siège
Dépôt des fonds sur un compte bloqué (S.A. : déclaration de souscription)
10 jours
Adoption et signature des statuts
Demande de publication dans un journal d'annonces légales
Déclaration de conformité
Envoi d'une copie des statuts aux services fiscaux pour enregistrement
5 jours
Demande d'immatriculation au registre du commerce et des sociétés
Existe-t-il un Centre de formalités (1) des entreprises à votre Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie ?
NON
OUI
Créateur de l'entreprise
Centre de formalités des entreprises
15 jours
INSEE
URSSAF
Services fiscaux
Greffe du Tribunal de Commerce
Obtention du numéro d'immatriculation au registre du commerce et des sociétés

1) Le décret du 30 mars 1984 rend obligatoire le passage par les centres de formalités des entreprises. Actuellement 143 centres sont ouverts. Les derniers, en région parisienne, à Bordeaux, Marseille, Lyon, Grenoble, Nice, Toulon et Strasbourg entreront en fonction au cours de l'année 1985 ou 1986

2) Voir l'immatriculation en 15 jours page 18

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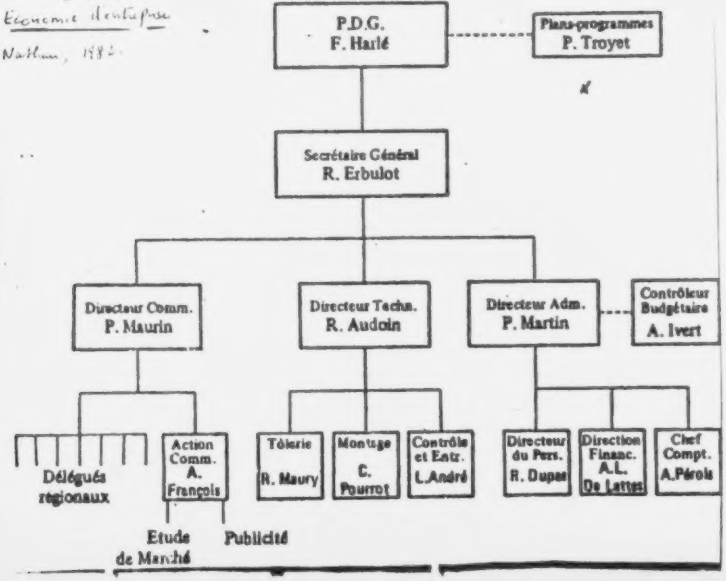
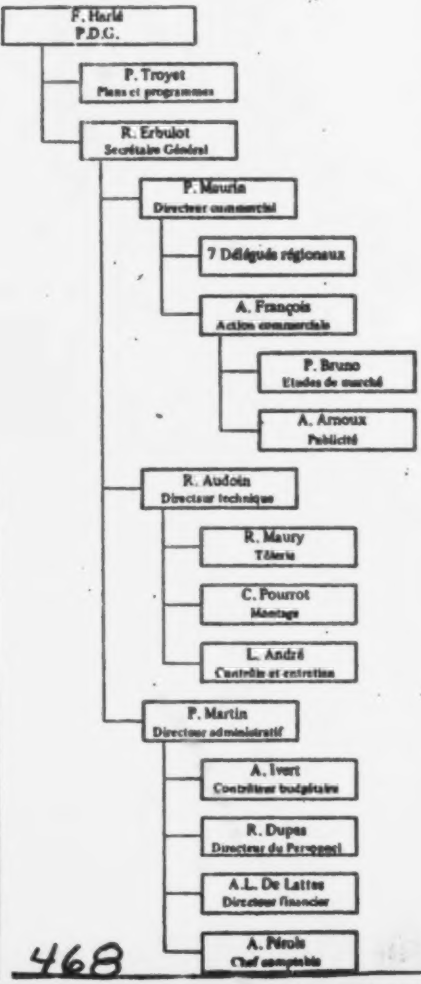
~ Document 2. ~

tiré de
Martory, Pesqueux
Économie d'entreprise
Nathan, 1982

L'organigramme de l'entreprise A
(Présentation classique en bannière)



P.D.G.
F. Harlé
Plans-programmes
P. Troyet
Secrétaire Général
R. Erbulot
Directeur Comm.
P. Maurin
Directeur Techn.
R. Audoin
Directeur Adm.
P. Martin
Contrôleur Budgétaire
A. Ivert
Délégués régionaux
Action Comm.
A. François
Etude de Marché
Publicité
Tôlerie
R. Maury
Montage
C. Pourrot
Contrôle et Entr.
L. André
Directeur du Pers.
R. Dupas
Direction Financ.
A.L. De Lattes
Chef Compt.
A. Pérols



F. Harlé
P.D.G.
P. Troyet
Plans et programmes
R. Erbulot
Secrétaire Général
P. Maurin
Directeur commercial
7 Délégués régionaux
A. François
Action commerciale
P. Bruno
Etudes de marché
A. Arnoux
Publicité
R. Audoin
Directeur technique
R. Maury
Tôlerie
C. Pourrot
Montage
L. André
Contrôle et entretien
P. Martin
Directeur administratif
A. Ivert
Contrôleur budgétaire
R. Dupas
Directeur du Personnel
A.L. De Lattes
Directeur financier
A. Pérols
Chef comptable

Attributions	Effectifs
Direction générale	384
Conseil direction	12
Sous-direction	358
Distribution	112
Vente	61
Maîtrise du marché	24
Connaissance des marchés	7
Action sur le marché	15
Production	185
Production corps des appareils	45
Chaînes montage	92
Contrôle Service après-vente	38
Administration	51
Etablissement des budgets	6
Gestion des ressources humaines	6
Financement	11
Comptabilité générale et analytique	21

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DEVELOPING COMPUTER-INTERACTIVE TAPE EXERCISES FOR INTERMEDIATE-LEVEL BUSINESS FRENCH

by

Dr. Mary Anne Garnett
Associate Professor of French
Department of Modern Languages
The University of South Dakota
Vermillion, South Dakota 57069

DEVELOPING COMPUTER-INTERACTIVE TAPE EXERCISES FOR INTERMEDIATE-LEVEL BUSINESS FRENCH

In the spring of 1986, I received a faculty development grant from the Bush Foundation to create computer-interactive tape exercises for an intermediate-level class in business French at the University of South Dakota. It is my hope that the following description of my project may be of use and encouragement to foreign language teachers, like myself, who are interested in integrating computers into their classes, but whose experience in using microcomputers has been limited. Although this paper deals with a specific language (French) on a specific level (intermediate), most of my observations are applicable to other languages and levels of instruction. My perspective is not that of an expert in computer-aided instruction, but that of an educator who, with some trepidation, has entered a new field of endeavor.

My interest in developing computer-interactive tape exercises was the result of both necessity and opportunity. For several years I had been confronted with the difficulty of finding an adequate textbook for teaching an intermediate-level (second year) course in business French. Most textbooks are designed for students in third-year French or above; there are few second-year textbooks currently on the market which integrate a review of basic grammar structures, desperately needed at the intermediate level, into a business context.[1] Second-year students also need extensive practice in developing listening comprehension, yet tape programs are lacking in most intermediate-level texts. The development of computer-interactive tape units which present grammar review and listening comprehension exercises in a business context was a logical solution.

The opportunity to realize this project depended on some fortunate circumstances. Our department had recently purchased some Tandberg TCCR 530 computer-interactive cassette recorders for our language laboratory; we had also acquired our first microcomputer, an Apple IIe. Several instructors, including myself, had been able to gain some experience creating computer exercises on the Apple IIe, using DASHER.[2] This first experience with an authoring program taught me two valuable lessons: (1) developing computer exercises takes much more time than you think it will at the outset, and (2) having an experienced colleague or resource person to consult is a necessity for a novice, despite assurances by software advertisers of the "user friendliness" of their product.

For the foreign language educator without programming skills who wishes to create computer-interactive exercises with an audio component, the immediate problem is finding suitable software. For my project, I was able to use IDI AUTHOR: A Multi-Lingual Authoring System then under development by Instructional Design

International.[3] This software does not require knowledge of a programming language, but it does take time to master and has special hardware requirements. To author a disk with IDI AUTHOR, you need an Apple IIe with Super Serial card or an Apple IIc with a special cable, 128K, and two disk drives. The student disks that you create can be run on the Apple IIe or IIc (with special cable) and require 128K and one disk drive.

The lesson you design is composed of frames or pages, each the equivalent of what can be displayed on the computer monitor at one time. For each frame, you may choose from a menu of five activities: presentation, multiple choice, read-along, fill-in-the-blank, and compare/contrast. Stimulus and feedback may be aural, visual, or both. You may also incorporate prerecorded tapes and other text and graphic files into the lesson. It is my experience, however, that the various activity formats in this program vary in smoothness of operation and potential for pedagogical application.

The presentation activity, as its name suggests, can be used for introductions to the lesson, directions to the student, and general prose. Each frame is 39 characters long and 18 lines deep, and, if you wish, there is an option for automatic frame advance. Unfortunately, the text editing mode in this, as in all other activities, is not sophisticated. Text does not wrap around from line to line; to make deletions or additions it is necessary to retype entire lines, sometimes even the entire screen.

The multiple choice activity most successfully realizes the potential of the system to be truly interactive. When a student selects an answer, the recorder automatically advances to the recorded feedback for that option. If the first choice is incorrect, the student chooses another response, and the recorder again advances or rewinds to the respective feedback passage. A drawback to this activity, however, is the limitation of space for the written text. There are only nine lines available for both the question and as many as four answer options. For each possible response, two lines of written feedback may be included. These constraints can, at times, be frustrating.

The fill-in-the blank activity accomodates both single blank questions and multiple blank cloze passages. You may provide ordered feedback in which you give the student the correct answer after the third try for single blank exercises. A pedagogical flaw in this activity is that the size of the blank on the screen indicates the number of letters in the response, thus providing an unwarranted clue to the correct answer.

The read-along activity is extremely useful for sound/symbol practice. You synchronize a recorded passage with the screen display by inserting read-along stops into the text to mark counter values on the recorder. You may display the entire text or simply key words or phrases as cues for listening comprehension. Learning to set and co-ordinate the counter values is difficult at first, but the system works well once you have mastered it.

In the compare/contrast activity, students can be asked to type in the text of a recorded passage or translate it. They are then shown the correct answer with which to compare their response. The screen provides five lines for directions or other text; the student has five lines to type in the response, and at the bottom there are five lines for the model or other feedback. Personally, I feel the educational value of this type of exercise is questionable. Much depends on the motivation and ability of the student. Students can easily avoid serious response because the correct answer is provided no matter what is typed in. Students who do take the exercise seriously need a certain degree of sophistication in order to compare their answer to the model and profit from the feedback.

The first set of exercises I developed with this software was a unit on the French banking system. In selecting this content area, I was motivated by several factors. Since I anticipated that it would take 3-4 weeks to develop, test, and revise a unit, it seemed important to create lessons that were not tied to any specific textbook but whose content area was included in most major ones. I did not wish to exert time and effort to create lessons which might be obsolete if the next year I decided to change textbooks. The French banking system is a primary topic in both intermediate and advanced texts; moreover, its complexity makes it a likely candidate for the reinforcement which computer exercises can provide.

The development of this lesson included the following steps:

1. The definition of lesson objectives and their sequence.
2. The determination of types of exercises best suited to achieving these objectives within the constraints of the software program.
3. The creation of a preliminary tape and diskette.
4. The testing of this preliminary tape and diskette on a small number of students.
5. A revision of the lesson based on feedback from the students.
6. The testing of the revised lesson on the entire class.
7. The evaluation and further modification of the unit based upon feedback from the entire group.

My objectives in designing a unit on French banking were limited. The lesson was intended to familiarize the students with the various types of French banks and incorporate the vocabulary of banking activities into grammar exercises that would give intermediate students practice in areas that pose some difficulties for them. Taking into consideration the types of exercises possible with the software, I designed a lesson containing three activities: (1) a read-along section on the French banking system which the student hears on tape and follows on screen, (2) a multiple-choice exercise to test comprehension of the read-along section, and (3) a fill-in-the -blank section requiring students to type in the correct preposition (à, de, or none) after a verb.

For the read-along section, I modified a short passage from Mustapha K. Bénouis' excellent Le français économique et commercial describing the various kinds of banks in France and their activities.[4] Sentences were simplified for second year students and the material was condensed for readability on the computer screen. The complete read-along section was composed of ten frames, each containing approximately 30-50 words.

The read-along section was followed by four multiple choice questions testing comprehension. The following is an example of a multiple choice question (with feedback shown here below each reponse):

Quelle banque contrôle le volume et le coût du crédit en France?

A. la Banque de France
Oui, très bien.

B. le Crédit National
Non, il finance les entreprises.

C. le Crédit Industriel et Commercial
Non, le CIC est une banque de dépôts.

D. le Crédit Commercial de France
Non, c'est une banque privée.

A fill-in -the-blank section of ten sentences using banking vocabulary and incorporating content from the reading passage completed the lesson. The student was to provide the appropriate preposition needed after the verb, as in the following example, which includes feedback options that I provided:

Le Banque de France a décidé __ baisser le taux d'escompte.

Bonne réponse! -- Désolé. -- Essayez encore. -- Mais non!

The first version of this lesson was then tested by having a student run through the exercises under my observation. A number of problems were identified. Some were inherent in the software design: for example, the size of the blank gave a clue to the correct answer. Others were flaws in the lesson itself, such as unclear feedback. On the whole, the student, although in the top quarter of the class, had difficulty with the exercises. The correct answer was chosen on the first try in the multiple choice section only 25 per cent of the time; the correct preposition was chosen only 46 per cent of the time in the fill-in-the-blank activity. The student, however, was positive in regard to the usefulness of the activity, particularly the preposition exercise, and recommended expanding the number of items in both sections.

In my revision of the unit, I expanded the number of multiple choice questions to six and fill-in-the-blank items to fifteen. Other changes were made to clarify items in both sections. This revised united was then given to the entire class of sixteen students to evaluate in pairs using written evaluation forms. In addition, I tested the unit once again by observing an individual student run through the exercises.

The results of these evaluations held some surprises and convinced me of the wisdom of involving students in the development of lessons, perhaps at an even earlier stage than the testing. In general, students felt that the length and difficulty of the exercises in the revised lesson were about right. Their opinion of the relative usefulness of the various sections was, however, unexpected. They did not perceive the read-along exercise, a unique feature of the computer-interactive program, as particularly useful. In fact, two of the eight groups did not see it as useful at all and the other groups felt it was only moderately useful. On the other hand, the students were quite unexpectedly enthusiastic about the usefulness and, indeed, fun of the fill-in-the-blank activity. I suspect that this is partly because fill-in-the-blank exercises are more traditionally found in workbooks and on tests, so that the students are perhaps more apt to perceive the "usefulness" of this activity in light of what they are generally asked to do. It is important therefore in the development of lessons to clarify for the students the reasons and objectives of the various sorts of exercises. This is perhaps most easily achieved by involving students in the planning and design of the lesson itself, thus fostering mutual awareness of expectations on the part of both teacher and students.

The most rewarding aspect of the development of this program was the positive, enthusiastic reaction of the students. In their written comments as part of the general evaluation, many indicated that working with the computer was fun. One group commented that the exercise on prepositions was "more fun because it seemed as we worked on it we were learning." Several groups, in fact, expressed a desire for more and longer exercises. One group made the following comment on the feedback responses that I was able to customize for the excercises: "Love the expletives!" The expletives, I hasten to add, were simply expressions like "Super!" "Désolé" and "Réfléchissez!"

Based on responses such as these, I would encourage you to consider integrating computer-interactive exercises into your classes, and, if you are creating your own exercises, to actively involve your students in developing and evaluating them. To do so involves a real commitment of time and effort, and there are many moments of frustration. I think, however, that you will find the results well worth it.

NOTES

1. A recent exception is Georges Perla's workbook French for Business and Finance which accompanies his and Gloria Russo's text, Basic French Grammar(D.C. Heath, 1985).

2. An authoring program developed by James Pusack, Conduit, University of Iowa.

3. Now available from Tandberg Educational, 1 Labriola Court, Armonk, NY 10504. IDI AUTHOR includes modifiable character sets for all Roman-alphabet languages plus Greek, Russian, and Japanese, as well as a SONY videodisc interface.

4. Published by Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1982. The Bénouis text is designed for third-year students.

JEU DE BANQUE ET BANQUE DE JEUX: PROFICIENCY-ORIENTED STRATEGIES FOR TEACHING THE FRENCH BANKING SYSTEM

by

Jo Ann M. Recker
The Ohio State University

JEU DE BANQUE ET BANQUE DE JEUX:

Proficiency-Oriented Strategies for Teaching the French Banking System

Who doesn't enjoy playing a good game? And when learning can be combined with playing, how much more satisfying the pleasure for most of us! As educators and, specifically, as teachers of French for Business, we have at our disposal a plethora of materials designed to assist us in this task; many of these materials are provided for us free of charge, courtesy of various French agencies. One such item is the *Jeu de banque*, created by Monsieur Diner of the Association Française des Banques, 18 rue Lafayette, 75009 Paris.

This game includes: a teacher's manual, a series of transparencies dealing with various banking operations, four *fiches* or booklets explaining the French banking system and providing a *lexique* of banking vocabulary. Additionally, there are samples of francs of varying denominations, forms simulating bank statements, *traites*, and check books. A number of *feuilles de routes*, giving detailed instructions to all players, complete the package. All of these materials are continually being updated and are always available upon request.

However, for those teachers who may not have all the above-mentioned materials, simply by virtue of being provided with a copy of the teacher's manual (see Appendix A) and some suggestions for a variety of related activites, many stimulating and profitable lessons on the French Banking System are quite feasible.

Presuming that most language educators are sufficiently familiar with the ACTFL Guidelines for Proficiency, I'll limit my comments here to what I hope will be a few sufficient generalities to be of assistance. As well, in view of following suggested activities to be used with the bank game, I intend to focus on those guidelines which deal with the speaking and writing skills.

The functional trisections of the oral and written proficiency levels (see Appendix B) provide a synthesized overview of those goals deemed to be attainable at proficiency levels from novice--or no functional ability in the foreign language-- to superior level, where performance is equivalent to that of an educated native speaker. Since most of the students whom we meet in our classes are probably in the intermediate to advanced categories (see Appendix C), these latter will be highlighted in the comments which follow.

The "First Act" of the _Jeu de banque_ brings into play the operations of: choosing a bank (in this case color-rather-than-name-coded, students having a choice between _la banque Jaune_, _la banque Bleue_, or _la banque Mauve_); opening an account, making an initial deposit, receiving a checkbook and the first bank statement, buying materials for a new business and attempting to pay for these with cash when French law dictates that beyond a certain, specified amount, one must pay by check and the like.

Suggested intermediate and advanced activities for this first act, therefore, include:

ORAL

1. Courtesy/social requirements necessary in introducing oneself at the bank. Giving the necessary greetings and introductions. Completing required transactions.
2. Ascertaining the capacité civile of the one asking to open an account. Any number of interesting and amusing activities can come into play here!
3. Arranging an appointment with the appropriate bank official by telephone, if desired.
4. Negotiating for purchase of materials and attempting to pay for them in cash. Distinctions may be made at this time between monnaie fiduciaire, monnaie scripturale, and monnaie électronique.

Techniques which are possible for facilitating the above exchanges range from asking personalized questions, paired interviews (for example, between banker and client), giving definitions (of different types of money, capacité civile), group problem solving (What are available courses of action when one is prepared to pay in cash, learns that he or she cannot, and does not have enough money on account to cover a check?).

WRITTEN

1. Completion of a carte d'identité.
2. Writing a check.
3. Matching definitions with new vocabulary items such as:

    B.P.F.
    chéquier
    chèque barré
    chèque en blanc
    chèque au porteur
    endosser
    tirer/tireur/tiré
    libeller
    toucher
    fisc
    déchéance temporaire
    carte bleue
    relevé de compte
    solde
    relevé d'identité bancaire
    compte courant
    compte d'épargne
    compte-joint
    le montant
    le talon
    en espèces
    argent liquide
    ouvrir un compte
    sans provision
    incident de paiement
    jour de valeur
    DAB (distributeur automatique)
    GAB (guichet automatique)
    créditeur

4. Guided composition based on interview.
5. Free composition (Perhaps a fictional account concerning someone who was declared not to have capacité civile or from point of view of someone who did not cover a chèque sans

provision.)

The "Second Act" calls for payment of salaries to company employees, again, a trip to the bank for purpose of depositing salaries, and the request for a carte bancaire. Any number of scenarios for depicting the relationship between employer and employee are possible, limited only by the creative ingenuity of the teacher and the class. Variations on the types of businesses, payment given to salaried workers, type of employment in the company are to be encouraged. Some possibilities are:

ORAL

1. Interview between employer and candidate for position in company; subsequent hiring.
2. Description of company given by hiring agent.
3. Discussion between client and banker concerning rules governing use of carte bleue.
4. Issuing of RIB and explanation of banking service which permits payment of salary by means of a virement.

WRITTEN

1. Drawing up of offre d'emploi for petites annonces.
2. Composition of CVs and lettres de candidature.
3. Written report defending selection of one candidate over

another.

4. Writing of a letter to a friend or relative giving news of new job obtained, description of company for which one will work, description of employer, co-workers, specifics of job.

"Act Three" of the _Jeu de banque_ requires renewing a company's stock, and the negotiations demanded by the use of a _traite_. Here, the activity is quite focused and the related oral and written enactment could include:

ORAL

1. Discussion between company manager and accountant concerning need for new stock and available funds.
2. Requesting credit, perhaps by telephone, from the supplier.
3. Requesting the discounting of the _traite_ from banker on the part of the supplier.

WRITTEN

1. Completing of form for a _traite_.
2. Written request for credit.
3. Written response for request for credit.
4. Written request to bank to discount _traite_.

This "Act" could conceivably take advantage of the process-oriented approach to writing in that, having heard or participated in the oral phase outlined above, students would then have the opportunity to recreate these discussions in written form. By exchanging letters between "company," "supplier," and "banker," a perfect opportunity for peer-editing presents itself. Edited letters could then be submitted to the teacher, signed by peer-reviewer, for further comments and editing. Perhaps the secrétariat of the respective companies would submit finalized versions.

"Acte IV" requires that participants request a loan from their respective banks and that the banks stipulate conditions for payment of these loans. This act lends itself nicely to, among other things, a comprehensive written and oral review of chiffres, those numbers, mathematical functions, figuring of percentages that students traditionally adore!

"Acte V" suggest an evening of amusement at the hypothetical discothèque. But barring a windfall from the Loto, such flings are rarely free. Payments can be made by cash, check, or bad check (all options are not necessarily legal!). The evening's profits are subsequently deposited by the happy proprietor of the disco. The oral activities of this act can be left to the freedom of the students. In fact, I would suggest that at this point in the course, a party (with all discussion in French, of course) would probably be quite appropriate. Refreshments, for which students would pay by the means at their disposal, could add to the "staging"--consequences of writing bad checks being left to another session. The only unintroduced feature of this scene is the filling out of a bank-card receipt, which could be reviewed ahead of time.

"Acte VI" brings the "moment of truth" to all participants for it is at this time that companies and banks alike make an accounting of assets and liabilities and settle any consequent unfinished business. Mathematical computation is again demanded here, as is proper negotiation between bankers as they settle accounts with one another. Those who may have gone bankrupt or who have written bad checks are dealt with accordingly. More advanced research projects with oral and/or written reports on the approriate French laws governing such situations fit well with this last act of the *Jeu de banque*.

Given obvious limitations due to the reality of time, it is my hope that you may at least have a notion of the innumerable possibilities, the *banque de jeux*, contained in the *Jeu de banque* available from the Association Française des Banques.

Jo Ann M. Recker
The Ohio State University

Ce jeu est une véritable séance de Travaux Dirigés, qui constitue pour les élèves une initiation au rôle et au fonctionnement des banques. Il a été conçu de manière à favoriser la participation des élèves : il fait appel à leur réflexion et les laisse, dans la mesure du possible, libres de leurs choix et de leurs décisions.
Les élèves sont les acteurs économiques : ils réalisent, à partir d'un scénario de base, des opérations élémentaires et indépendantes les unes des autres.
Celles-ci ont pour but de faire comprendre :
- que la banque joue un rôle indispensable dans l'économie,
- qu'elle est une entreprise comme les autres,
- qu'elle entretient des relations à la fois avec ses clients et avec les autres banques.

Les rôles :

- La Banque de France : le Professeur;
- Trois banques : la banque Jaune, la banque Bleue et la banque Mauve;
- Trois chefs d'entreprise :
  - M. Durock, gérant d'une discothèque, le *Chouet' Club*,
  - M. Hifi, commerçant en matériel hifi au *Supersonic Center*,
  - M. Chaîne, fournisseur en matériel hifi;
- Les employés des trois chefs d'entreprise, en nombre indéterminé.

Le scénario :

ACTE I M. Durock décide d'ouvrir une discothèque dans votre ville : le *Chouet' Club*. Pour équiper cette discothèque en matériel hifi, il se rend au *Supersonic Center*.

ACTE II MM. Durock, Hifi et Chaîne paient chacun leurs employés par chèque. Les employés ouvrent un compte à la banque de leur choix. Ils alimentent ce compte avec le salaire que leur a versé leur employeur (à l'exception de l'un des employés qui laisse son compte à découvert).

ACTE III M. Hifi a vendu à M. Durock les dernières pièces de son stock. Il doit se réapprovisionner auprès des établissements Chaîne. Il paie M. Chaîne par traite.
Monsieur Chaîne, de son côté, décide de moderniser ses installations et escompte la traite qui lui a été remise par M. Hifi.

ACTE IV Les employés qui disposent d'un compte provisionné décident d'acheter une chaîne hifi. Ils font une demande de prêt à leur banque et règlent M. Hifi par chèque.

ACTE V Tous les participants, sauf les banquiers, se retrouvent à la soirée du *Chouet' Club*. Ils paient leurs consommations.

ACTE VI Les trois banquiers réalisent la compensation entre les différents chèques qu'ils ont reçus tout au long du jeu.

Les différentes opérations à réaliser au cours du jeu :

(L'ordre ci-dessous est purement indicatif : l'initiative des opérations est laissée à la libre appréciation des élèves et des professeurs) :
- L'ouverture de comptes en banque;
- Des paiements par chèque (dont un chèque sans provision);
- Des demandes de prêt à chacune des banques;
- Des paiements par traite et l'escompte des traites.

A la fin du jeu, une opération plus complexe pourra être réalisée grâce aux explications du professeur :
- La compensation entre les banques.

Déroulement :

Une bonne mise en œuvre du scénario suppose donc la présence de :
- Trois élèves personnalisant les trois chefs d'entreprise (gérant, commerçant et fournisseur);

- Trois élèves au moins personnalisant les employés de chacun des trois chefs d'entreprise;
- Trois élèves représentant les trois banques : la banque Jaune, la banque Bleue et la banque Mauve;

Soit environ neuf élèves au minimum, plus le professeur, qui représente la Banque de France.

Afin de permettre à tous les élèves de participer activement au jeu de rôle, le professeur pourra partager la classe en trois ou quatre groupes de travail ou « ateliers » qui réaliseront chacun, avec les trois banquiers communs à l'ensemble des ateliers, toutes les opérations prévues. A l'intérieur de chaque atelier, les élèves choisissent librement d'être gérants de discothèque, commerçants, fournisseurs ou employés (étant entendu qu'il faut au moins un représentant de chaque rôle pour la bonne marche du jeu).

Le matériel dont vous disposez :

1 - Le guide du maître (le présent document) qui vous donne pour chaque « acte » :
- L'objectif recherché au niveau de la compréhension des élèves;
- La description, scène par scène, des opérations effectuées par les élèves;
- Les explications que vous pouvez fournir aux élèves pour guider leur choix et approfondir leurs connaissances;

2 - Les fiches d'identification et les « feuilles de route » à distribuer aux élèves. Chaque feuille de route résume brièvement la conduite à tenir dans chaque scène par les participants concernés.
3 - Les documents et moyens de paiement à répartir entre les rôles (espèces, chèques, relevés de compte, traites...).
4 - Trois transparents.

La mise en route du jeu de rôle :

Le professeur raconte le scénario à l'ensemble de la classe. Il présente le jeu de rôle comme une pièce de théâtre, découpée en actes et en scènes, et faisant intervenir des acteurs (les élèves) et des accessoires (les moyens de paiement). Puis il procède au partage des rôles de la manière suivante :
- Le professeur choisit tout d'abord trois élèves (qui ne font pas partie des ateliers) pour représenter les trois banques; il les place bien en évidence, dos au tableau, face au reste de la classe.
- Il partage ensuite la classe en trois ou quatre groupes de six élèves au minimum. A l'intérieur de chaque groupe, les élèves choisissent d'être gérant, commerçant, fournisseur ou employé; le professeur place côte à côte les chefs d'entreprise et leurs employés respectifs. Le professeur donne à chacun sa « feuille de route » correspondante.
  Il distribue comme suit les moyens de paiement et les documents :

- A chacune des trois banques : 100.000 F en liquide, des relevés de compte, des chéquiers; la banque Jaune reçoit en plus une carte de paiement;
- A chacun des gérants de la discothèque : 25.000 F en liquide;
- A chacun des commerçants : 20.000 F sous forme de dépôt à la banque de son choix et un chéquier de la banque correspondante;
- A chacun des fournisseurs : une traite et 25.000 F sous forme de dépôt à la banque de son choix et un chéquier de la banque correspondante;
- A tous les élèves (sauf aux banquiers), de 300 à 500 F d'argent liquide.

Avant le début du jeu, chaque commerçant et chaque fournisseur dispose d'un compte provisionné ouvert dans la banque de son choix (il dispose aussi d'un chéquier).

Le professeur propose à chaque « atelier » de jouer le premier acte : l'équipement du *Chouet' Club* en matériel hifi. Il rappelle quels sont les élèves intéressés par ce premier acte : les gérants, un des banquiers, les commerçants.

PREMIER ACTE (à réaliser par chacun des ateliers)

L'équipement en matériel de sonorisation de la nouvelle discothèque de monsieur Durock : Le Chouet' Club.

Objectif :

Mettre en évidence le rôle indispensable de la banque dans la vie quotidienne, à partir de trois actions élémentaires :

- l'ouverture d'un compte,
- un versement en liquide sur ce compte,
- un paiement par chèque.

Les élèves concernés : les gérants, les commerçants, les banques.

Vos explications préalables

> En ouvrant une discothèque (ou tout autre commerce), M. Durock devient commerçant et doit remplir certaines obligations juridiques dont l'immatriculation au Registre du Commerce et des Sociétés qui s'impose notamment à tout commerçant, personne physique, même s'il est tenu de se faire immatriculer au répertoire des métiers (décret du 3 juillet 1978).
> Par ailleurs, la loi du 22 octobre 1940 disposait déjà que tout commerçant assujetti à se faire immatriculer au Registre du Commerce est tenu de se faire ouvrir un compte dans une banque, dans un établissement de crédit ou dans un bureau de chèques postaux.

SCÈNE 1. Vous demandez dans chaque atelier à l'élève qui joue le rôle du gérant de se rendre à la banque de son choix et d'y ouvrir un compte.
Monsieur Durock ouvre un compte et y dépose 10.000 F.
La banque lui remet un chéquier et son premier relevé de compte, crédité de 10.000 F.

Vos explications

> *Qu'est-ce qu'un compte ?*
> Un compte est un état tenu par la banque et sur lequel est porté l'ensemble des opérations qui se réalisent entre la banque et son client.
> La banque enregistre sur le compte de son client toutes les opérations effectuées par celui-ci. Elle inscrit dans la colonne *crédit* les opérations qui ont pour effet d'augmenter l'avoir du client : versements d'espèces, remises de chèques, virement des salaires, etc., et dans la colonne *débit* les opérations qui diminuent l'avoir du client : retraits d'espèces au guichet, ou par carte dans un distributeur automatique de billets, paiements par chèque ou par carte, prélèvements automatiques, etc.
> La différence entre le total des sommes portées au crédit et le total des sommes portées au débit s'appelle le *solde* du compte. Quand le crédit est supérieur au débit, le solde est créditeur. Dans le cas contraire, il est débiteur. Sauf autorisation de la banque (qu'on appelle « autorisation de découvert » et qui est un véritable crédit donnant donc lieu au paiement d'un intérêt), le solde ne doit jamais être débiteur.
>
> *Qui peut ouvrir un compte ?*
> Deux conditions doivent être en principe réunies : il faut être majeur (18 ans) et avoir la capacité civile.

La capacité civile est le pouvoir reconnu par la loi aux personnes « d'accomplir des actes, de prendre des engagements et de défendre leurs intérêts ». Par exemple, un mineur est « incapable », de même qu'une personne majeure placée sous tutelle par décision judiciaire.

Quelles précautions la banque doit-elle prendre avant d'accepter l'ouverture d'un compte ?

- Elle doit se renseigner sur l'identité du client (nom, prénom, date de naissance, nationalité, adresse).
- Elle doit vérifier sa « capacité civile ».
- Elle doit, pour délivrer un chéquier, vérifier également auprès de la Banque de France que le futur titulaire du compte n'est pas interdit de chéquier (interdit bancaire). L'interdiction bancaire est une déchéance temporaire et non une incapacité. Chaque incident de paiement (chèque non payé par la banque pour défaut de provision et non régularisé) qui a donné lieu à une interdiction (chaque interdiction dure 12 mois) est fiché à la Banque de France pendant 3 ans.

Le droit à l'ouverture d'un compte

La banque a toujours le droit de clôturer un compte ou de refuser l'ouverture d'un compte à une personne qu'elle ne désire pas avoir comme client pour une raison ou pour une autre.

Mais la loi du 24 janvier 1984 prévoit que toute personne qui s'est vu refuser l'ouverture d'un compte de dépôt par plusieurs établissements de crédit peut demander à la Banque de France de lui désigner un établissement auprès duquel elle pourra ouvrir un compte. L'ouverture du compte n'implique pas forcément la délivrance d'un carnet de chèques (notamment lorsque la personne est interdite de chéquier).

SCÈNE 2. Vous demandez au gérant d'aller acheter pour 12.000 F de matériel chez M. Hifi. Vous demandez au gérant de payer en liquide. Vous laissez les élèves constater que le gérant ne peut pas régler son achat : le commerçant refuse d'être payé en liquide.

Vos explications

En ce qui concerne les commerçants, la loi du 24 mai 1951 établit que tout paiement, notamment de marchandises ou de services supérieur à 1.000 F, doit être effectué soit par chèque barré, soit par virement en banque ou à un compte courant postal.

Le gérant de la discothèque doit donc payer par chèque son achat au commerçant.

En ce qui concerne les particuliers non commerçants, la loi de finances pour 1984 rend obligatoire le paiement par chèque barré, virement bancaire ou postal ou carte de paiement, de tous les achats de biens et services d'un montant supérieur à 10.000 F.

SCÈNE 3. Vous demandez au gérant de payer son achat au commerçant, M. Hifi. Vous laissez les élèves constater que M. Durock n'a que 10.000 F sur son compte. Il doit donc y déposer au moins 2.000 F pour pouvoir payer le commerçant.

Vos explications

La provision du chèque.

La provision du chèque doit être suffisante, préalable et disponible. Elle peut être constituée soit par un avoir disponible en compte (solde créditeur), soit par un crédit (par exemple un découvert). La provision doit exister au moment du tirage du chèque car celui-ci peut être présenté au paiement immédiatement. Néanmoins, la durée de validité d'un chèque bancaire en France est de 3 ans et 8 jours, celle d'un chèque postal de 1 an.

M. Durock dépose 5.000 F sur son compte en banque. Il remplit un chèque de 12.000 F au nom de M. Hifi, afin de payer son achat de matériel. Il donne le chèque au commerçant, qui le dépose à sa banque. La banque lui donne un nouveau relevé de compte.

Vos explications

> *Qu'est-ce qu'un chèque?*
>
> Un chèque est un titre de paiement tiré sur une banque ou un établissement assimilé par lequel le titulaire d'un compte donne l'ordre à sa banque de payer une somme déterminée à une personne qu'il désigne.
>
> Le chèque met en général trois personnes en relation :
>
> - La personne qui l'établit : le tireur,
> - La banque qui doit payer : le tiré,
> - La personne qui doit recevoir le paiement : le bénéficiaire.
>
> Dans ce cas, le chèque est un instrument de paiement. Le chèque peut aussi être un instrument de retrait de fonds pour le titulaire du compte dans son guichet ou dans un autre guichet de sa banque. Il suffit à ce dernier d'inscrire son nom à l'emplacement réservé au bénéficiaire pour pouvoir retirer pour lui-même la somme dont il a besoin.
>
> Le chèque est une forme de monnaie : sous forme de billets ou de pièces, la monnaie est dite « fiduciaire »; sous toutes les formes écrites, elle est dite « scripturale ». On parle également de « monnaie électronique » à propos des paiements faisant appel à l'informatique.

Mise à jour des comptes et visualisation des mouvements de monnaie au tableau

Vous demandez aux élèves qui jouent les rôles du gérant et du commerçant de faire le point de leur situation financière.

COMPTE DU GÉRANT

DÉBIT	*CRÉDIT*
12.000 F	15.000 F

Solde créditeur : 3.000 F

COMPTE DU COMMERÇANT

DÉBIT	*CRÉDIT*
	20.000 F 12.000 F

Solde créditeur : 32.000 F

DEUXIÈME ACTE (à réaliser par chacun des ateliers)

Le versement des salaires aux employés.

Objectif :

Familiariser les élèves avec différents services offerts par les banques : ouverture de compte, délivrance de chéquiers...

Les élèves concernés : tous les élèves de la classe.

Vos explications préalables

> Selon la loi du 7 juin 1977, le paiement des salaires de plus de 2.500 F par mois doit être effectué soit par chèque barré, soit par virement en banque ou à un compte courant postal.

SCÈNE 1. Vous demandez aux trois « chefs d'entreprise » de chaque atelier de verser le salaire à leurs employés.
Vous laissez le gérant de la discothèque, le commerçant et le fournisseur remplir chacun un ou plusieurs chèques de 5.000 F et les donner à leurs employés.

Vos explications

> *Comment s'effectue l'encaissement d'un chèque ?*

1 - S'il s'agit d'un chèque de retrait.

> Le titulaire du compte retire lui-même, en billets, une partie de son avoir à la banque. La banque vérifie que le chèque a été correctement rempli et que la provision est suffisante. Elle demande au titulaire de reconnaître par sa signature qu'il a reçu le montant demandé et elle débite son compte.

2 - S'il s'agit d'un chèque de paiement.

> Depuis 1979, les chèques sont prébarrés, ce qui signifie qu'ils ne peuvent être présentés au paiement que par l'intermédiaire d'un banquier ou d'un chef de bureau de poste. Ils ne sont plus transmissibles par endossement, « sauf au profit d'une banque, d'une caisse d'épargne ou d'un établissement assimilé » (formule indiquée sur chaque chèque), précisément pour l'encaissement qui se fait généralement par l'inscription de la somme correspondante au crédit du compte du bénéficiaire.
>
> *Quelle est l'importance du chèque dans la vie économique ?*
>
> Plus de 4 milliards de chèques ont été émis en 1983 en France. Ce volume montre l'importance et l'utilité du chèque dans la vie quotidienne, d'abord parce qu'il est l'instrument de paiement le plus utilisé dans notre pays, ensuite parce que 97 % de la population de plus de 18 ans possède au moins un compte en banque. Autrement dit, tout le monde ou presque émet et reçoit des chèques.

SCÈNE 2. Vous demandez à chacun des employés d'aller ouvrir un compte à la banque de son choix. Les employés se rendent à la banque de leur choix et y ouvrent un compte. Ils déposent leur chèque de 5.000 F sur ce compte. La banque leur donne un relevé de compte et un carnet de chèques. L'un des employés reçoit une carte de paiement de sa banque, la banque Jaune. Un autre employé qui a déjà son compte ouvert, et non provisionné, ne dépose pas son chèque.

Vos explications

Qu'est-ce qu'une carte bancaire?

Une carte bancaire se présente sous la forme d'un rectangle en plastique de petit format qui indique :
- Le nom de son titulaire;
- Le numéro d'identification de ce titulaire;
- La date à laquelle la carte cessera d'être valable;
- Le nom de la banque qui l'a délivrée.

Son titulaire doit y apposer sa signature avant de l'utiliser.

Il existe plusieurs types de carte :
- Les cartes de retrait dans les distributeurs de billets;
- Les cartes de paiement chez les commerçants;
- Les cartes de retrait et de paiement.

Les cartes peuvent utiliser plusieurs technologies :
- La carte à piste : les informations concernant l'identification du titulaire ainsi que certaines opérations sont inscrites sous forme codée sur une ou plusieurs pistes magnétiques;
- La carte à mémoire : les informations concernant l'identification du titulaire ainsi que les opérations effectuées sont inscrites sous forme codée, dans un microprocesseur. Cette technologie, encore en expérimentation, permet d'élargir la gamme des services offerts;
- La carte mixte : à la fois à piste et à microprocesseur, elle permet de développer la technologie de la carte à mémoire et de continuer à utiliser les distributeurs automatiques de billets et les terminaux chez les commerçants fonctionnant avec le système de la carte à piste.

Mise à jour de leur compte par les élèves concernés et visualisation des mouvements de monnaie au tableau.

Vous demandez aux élèves concernés de faire le point de la situation de leur compte.

TROISIÈME ACTE (à réaliser par chacun des ateliers)

Le paiement par traite et l'escompte de la traite.

Objectif :

Mettre en évidence, à partir du mécanisme de l'escompte d'une traite, le rôle joué par la banque dans le financement des entreprises, et dans la dispensation des crédits nécessaires à leur fonctionnement.

Les élèves concernés : les commerçants, les fournisseurs, leurs banques.

SCÈNE 1. Vous demandez dans chaque atelier à l'élève qui joue le rôle du commerçant de renouveler son stock de matériel hifi pour 80.000 F.
Vous laissez les élèves constater que le commerçant ne dispose pas des fonds nécessaires à ce renouvellement : il n'a sur son compte en banque que 27.000 F (32.000 F à la fin de la première opération, moins les 5.000 F versés à l'employé). Il demande donc à son fournisseur de lui faire crédit. Le fournisseur accepte d'être payé par traite à 60 jours.

Vos explications

> *Qu'est-ce qu'une traite ?*
>
> L'appellation « traite » est la dénomination la plus usuelle de la « lettre de change ». C'est un effet de commerce, c'est-à-dire un titre négociable qui représente une créance et sert à son paiement.
> La traite est un ordre écrit qu'un créancier (le tireur) donne à son débiteur (le tiré) de verser à une échéance indiquée une somme précise à une personne désignée (le bénéficiaire). La traite est donc un titre que le créancier se crée à lui-même et dans lequel il incorpore une créance sur son débiteur (la provision de la lettre de change).

SCÈNE 2. Vous demandez à l'élève qui joue le rôle du fournisseur de préparer la traite.

Vos explications

> La lettre de change est le plus souvent établie sur des formules imprimées. Elle est soumise à des conditions de formes précises comportant notamment des mentions obligatoires : la dénomination « lettre de change », le mandat de payer une somme déterminée, le nom du tiré, l'échéance, le lieu de paiement (en principe une domiciliation bancaire), le bénéficiaire, la date et le lieu de création, la signature du tireur. La signature du tiré, qui signifie « acceptation », c'est-à-dire son engagement de payer la traite à l'échéance, n'est obligatoire que lorsque le tireur a rempli les obligations et d'abord la livraison des marchandises.

Le fournisseur inscrit sur la traite :
- l'échéance (60 jours),
- le montant (80.000 F),
- le nom du bénéficiaire (lui-même),
- le lieu de paiement (c'est-à-dire la banque du commerçant),
- la date de création de la traite,

— il signe la traite et la présente au tiré (le commerçant) pour « acceptation ».
— le commerçant complète la traite et la retourne au fournisseur.

Vos explications

Quelle est l'importance de la traite dans la vie économique?

On estime qu'en moyenne 1 500 000 traites de toutes valeurs sont signées chaque jour en France.
Le succès de la traite s'explique :

- Chez le fournisseur, par le souci de s'attacher les clients en leur consentant des facilités de paiement;
- Chez le client, par l'impossibilité fréquente de payer ses fournisseurs avant la vente de la marchandise.

  Par le fait qu'elle n'est pas payable immédiatement, mais au terme de l'échéance indiquée, la traite est un instrument de crédit. Elle permet à l'acquéreur de marchandises de les revendre avant que la traite ne soit présentée au paiement. Le vendeur, quant à lui, n'est pas obligé d'attendre le jour du paiement. Il peut obtenir de l'argent en escomptant sa traite auprès de son banquier.

SCÈNE 3. Vous demandez à l'élève qui joue le rôle du fournisseur d'entreprendre la modernisation de ses équipements. Cette modernisation lui coûtera 70.000 F. Où va-t-il trouver les fonds nécessaires?
Vous laissez les élèves constater que le fournisseur ne dispose que de 20.000 F environ sur son compte (25.000 F du début du jeu, moins les 5.000 F versés à son employé à l'acte II).
La traite de 80.000 F qu'il a reçue du commerçant n'est pas utilisable comme moyen de paiement immédiat : le fournisseur doit l'escompter auprès de sa banque pour obtenir la somme correspondante diminuée toutefois de la rémunération de la banque (agio d'escompte). L'élève qui joue le rôle du fournisseur remet la traite à sa banque en l'endossant, c'est-à-dire en apposant sa signature au verso de la traite. Cette signature transfère à la banque du fournisseur la propriété de la traite.
En échange de la traite, la banque crédite le compte du fournisseur de 78.000 F (80.000 F moins les agios de l'escompte). Le fournisseur a désormais à sa disposition la somme que le commerçant ne devait lui verser que deux mois plus tard.
La banque présentera la traite au commerçant 60 jours plus tard, pour qu'il honore son engagement et règle les 80.000 F.

Vos explications

Qu'est-ce que l'escompte?

L'escompte est une opération par laquelle une banque achète un effet de commerce avant son échéance et en verse à son porteur le montant diminué de la rémunération de la banque. L'escompte est ainsi un moyen, pour une entreprise ou un commerçant, de récupérer avant l'échéance fixée les sommes que lui doivent ses clients.

Quel est le mécanisme de l'escompte?

Reprenons l'exemple de notre commerçant qui a acheté pour 80.000 F de matériel hifi à son fournisseur et l'a payé par traite (scène 2.).
Le fournisseur dispose ainsi d'une créance sur son client, mais cette créance n'est utilisable que deux mois plus tard; dans l'intervalle, le fournisseur peut avoir besoin d'argent.
Comment va-t-il transformer sa créance en moyen de paiement immédiat, c'est-à-dire en monnaie? En cédant la traite à sa banque, pour qu'elle l'escompte. Quand elle escompte une traite, la banque en met immédiatement le montant à la disposition de son client. En contrepartie, elle devient bénéficiaire de la traite, c'est-à-dire que c'est elle qui l'encaissera pour son propre compte à l'échéance : elle sera payée par le « tiré » (ici, le commerçant) ou par la banque où est domiciliée la traite.

Qu'appelle-t-on « agios » d'escompte ?

En escomptant une traite, la banque prête de l'argent et rend service à un de ses clients : il est donc logique qu'elle perçoive une rémunération. Les agios représentent la rémunération perçue par la banque pour l'opération d'escompte.
Ils comprennent :

- Les intérêts perçus en fonction du taux d'escompte (l'opération d'escompte est une opération de crédit : elle justifie donc la perception d'intérêts qui sont calculés d'après le temps restant à courir jusqu'à l'échéance);
- Les diverses commissions qui constituent la rémunération de la banque pour le service rendu.

Quels risques prend la banque en escomptant une traite ?

L'opération d'escompte présente pour la banque un double risque :

- Un risque de non-remboursement au cas où le tiré ne s'acquitterait pas de sa dette. La solvabilité du ou des endosseurs compte également, car, en endossant une traite, on devient garant de son paiement puisque la transmission d'une traite par endossement a permis de s'acquitter soi-même d'une dette (la traite étant un moyen de paiement);
- Un risque dit « d'immobilisation » qui est le risque pour la banque de ne plus disposer de fonds en quantité suffisante pour rembourser ses déposants; en effet, en mettant immédiatement à la disposition du cédant une somme qu'elle ne récupérera qu'à l'échéance, la banque se prive des fonds correspondants, qui se trouvent immobilisés dans l'opération de crédit.
  Pour pallier ce risque, la banque peut se refinancer sur le marché monétaire au taux de ce même marché en vendant ses effets de commerce à une autre banque, ou à la Banque de France si celle-ci décide d'intervenir. Depuis plusieurs années, la Banque de France n'a pas refinancé d'effets commerciaux car le besoin ne s'en est pas fait sentir.

Mise à jour des comptes et visualisation au tableau.

Vous demandez aux élèves concernés de faire le point de la situation de leur compte.

QUATRIÈME ACTE (à réaliser par chacun des ateliers)

La demande de prêt des employés à leur banque

Objectif :

La mise en évidence, à partir d'une opération de prêt, du rôle essentiel de la banque en matière de distribution de crédit.

Les élèves concernés : les employés, les banquiers et les commerçants.

SCÈNE 1. Vous rappelez aux employés qui disposent d'un compte provisionné qu'ils doivent s'acheter une chaîne hifi d'un montant de 10.500 F.
Vous laissez les élèves constater que les employés disposent de 5.000 F seulement sur leur compte en banque. Pour pouvoir financer leur achat, ils doivent donc faire une demande de prêt à leur banque. Ils sollicitent l'octroi d'un prêt de 10.000 F.

Vos explications

Qu'est-ce que le crédit ?

Le banquier appelle opération de crédit toute opération par laquelle, faisant confiance à son client, il accorde à celui-ci les concours de ses capitaux ou de sa garantie.
Les opérations de crédit se classent donc en deux groupes :

- Les apports de fonds : prêt, avance, découvert, escompte, etc.;
- Les engagements en faveur du client : « acceptation » d'une traite, aval, caution, etc.

Dans la pratique des banques, les prêts sont souvent caractérisés par l'échéance du remboursement :

- Les crédits à court terme (2 ans au maximum). Pour les entreprises, ils répondent au financement du cycle de fabrication et de commercialisation. Pour les particuliers, ce sont des crédits à la consommation ou des prêts personnels liés à une utilisation déterminée ou non.
- Les crédits à moyen terme (2 à 7 ans). Pour les entreprises, ils permettent le financement d'équipement, l'exportation et de répondre à l'allongement des cycles de fabrication et de commercialisation. Pour les particuliers, ce sont des prêts à l'équipement, à l'achat ou à la construction du logement.
- Les crédits à long terme (supérieur à 7 ans). Ces prêts sont destinés à financer l'investissement des entreprises (construction, équipement d'une usine). Les prêts sont accordés en liaison avec les organismes spécialisés : Crédit National, Crédit d'Équipement des Petites et Moyennes Entreprises (C.E.P.M.E.) pour l'industrie; Crédit Foncier pour le financement du logement des particuliers.

On voit donc que le crédit est aujourd'hui inséparable de la vie économique. Tout agent économique connaît des décalages entre le rythme de ses dépenses et celui de ses recettes : une entreprise peut avoir besoin de capitaux pour accroître ses moyens de production, un commerçant pour acheter de la marchandise, un particulier pour acheter un logement, une voiture, un appareil d'équipement ménager, etc.

Le rôle des banques est précisément de répondre à ces divers besoins de financement par l'octroi de crédits. La redistribution des capitaux est la base même de l'activité bancaire. La banque est en effet un commerçant qui collecte des dépôts et qui accorde des crédits pour répondre aux besoins de sa clientèle, jouant ainsi le rôle d'intermédiaire financier.

SCÈNE 2. Vous demandez aux élèves qui personnifient les banques de fixer avec les employés les conditions de remboursement des 10.000 F.
Vous laissez les élèves concernés discuter entre eux : les prêts au taux de 10 % seront remboursés sur une durée au choix en fonction des tables financières que les « banquiers » ont à leur disposition au dos de leur feuille de route. Le compte en banque des employés est crédité de 10.000 F supplémentaires.

Vos explications

> Les employés ont emprunté 10.000 F à leur banque au taux de 10 %. Le calcul du remboursement de ce prêt est complexe dans la mesure où chaque remboursement (mensualité ou trimestrialité) est composé de deux parties : d'une part le remboursement d'une partie du capital; d'autre part, le paiement des intérêts sur le capital restant à rembourser. De plus, l'ensemble de ce calcul est fait le plus souvent de telle manière que les remboursements soient constants. C'est la raison pour laquelle les banquiers disposent des « tables financières » qui indiquent immédiatement, pour un montant de prêt donné, le montant des remboursements, en fonction du taux d'intérêt et de la durée du prêt.

SCÈNE 3. Vous demandez aux élèves qui jouent le rôle des employés d'aller effectuer leur achat chez le commerçant.
Vous laissez les employés régler leur achat. Ils le font par chèque ou par carte (pour cette dernière, voir page 13) puisque le montant est supérieur à 10.000 F. Le commerçant dépose les chèques à sa banque.

Mise à jour des comptes et visualisation au tableau.

Vous demandez aux élèves concernés de faire le point de la situation de leur compte.

CINQUIÈME ACTE (à réaliser par chacun des ateliers)

La soirée à la discothèque.

Objectif :

Faire réaliser par les élèves un maximum de paiements avec les moyens dont ils disposent. Montrer à cette occasion les différents services et facilités de règlement que la banque met à la disposition de ses clients.

Vous demandez aux élèves concernés par la soirée à la discothèque (toute la classe, sauf les trois banquiers) de payer leur entrée et leurs consommations avec les moyens de paiement dont ils disposent.
Vous laissez les élèves effectuer leurs règlements (de 100 à 300 F) avec les moyens de paiement de leur choix : chèques, liquide.
L'un des élèves utilise sa carte de paiement. Un autre remet un chèque qui va se révéler être sans provision. Le gérant reçoit tous les paiements. Il les dépose à sa banque.

Vos explications

Quels sont les avantages des cartes ?

Les cartes permettent :
- De retirer de l'argent liquide dans les distributeurs automatiques de billets (1.800 F par semaine);
- De donner très simplement à la banque l'ordre de régler un commerçant;
- De retarder le paiement du particulier, puisque le compte de l'utilisateur de la carte n'est débité qu'une fois par mois, sans pour autant retarder la recette du commerçant : le compte du commerçant est crédité immédiatement après la remise de la facture à sa banque.

La carte reste toujours propriété de la banque émettrice qui peut la retirer à tout moment.

Modalités d'utilisation des cartes

Les commerçants qui acceptent les règlements par cartes sont équipés par leur banque d'une machine qui leur permet d'établir une facture lorsqu'un client règle son achat au moyen de sa carte. Cette machine reproduit automatiquement sur la facture les indications permettant d'identifier le porteur de la carte, sa domiciliation bancaire, et la date de l'opération. Le montant est encore souvent inscrit manuellement. Il suffit au client de signer la facture.
Celle-ci comprend trois feuillets, dont l'un est remis à l'acheteur, l'autre conservé par le commerçant et le troisième remis par le commerçant à sa banque.

Mise à jour de leur compte par les élèves concernés et visualisation au tableau.

Vous demandez aux élèves concernés de faire le point de la situation de leur compte.

SIXIÈME ACTE (à réaliser par les trois banques)

La compensation.

Objectif :

Montrer comment s'effectue, au niveau des banques, l'encaissement des chèques : mettre notamment en évidence le mécanisme de la compensation, par lequel les banques centralisent et simplifient les opérations d'encaissement réalisées au profit de leurs clients.
Montrer aux élèves les mesures prises par la banque dans le cas de l'émission d'un chèque sans provision.

Les élèves concernés : les trois banquiers.

Vos explications

Qu'est-ce que la compensation ?

Les banques reçoivent tous les jours de nombreux chèques dont leurs clients sont les bénéficiaires et qu'elles doivent encaisser pour leur compte. Les chèques sont payables dans des banques différentes. Plutôt que de se payer mutuellement chacun des chèques, les banques sont convenues de se réunir chaque jour en un lieu (chambre de compensation) où elles s'échangent leurs chèques et ne se règlent que la différence entre le total des sommes qu'elles ont à recevoir et le total des sommes qu'elles ont à payer.
C'est cette double opération d'échange des chèques et de règlement du solde qu'on appelle compensation.
Il y a une chambre de compensation à Paris et dans un grand nombre de villes en province . En province, les chambres de compensation se tiennent habituellement dans les locaux de la Banque de France.
N.B. : les effets de commerce (comme notre traite) font également l'objet de la compensation entre les banques.

Quel est le mécanisme de la compensation ?

Chaque banque apporte les chèques qu'elle doit encaisser pour le compte de ses clients et les remet aux banques intéressées. En échange, elle reçoit des autres banques les chèques qu'elle doit payer au profit des clients de ces autres banques.
Chaque banque établit ainsi la balance (différence) entre le total des sommes qu'elle a à encaisser (montant des chèques qu'elle remet aux autres banques) et le total des sommes qu'elle doit payer (montant des chèques qui lui sont remis par les autres banques).
Seul ce solde (cette différence) fait donc l'objet du règlement : c'est le principe de la compensation, qui simplifie considérablement les règlements interbancaires. Le règlement de ces soldes se fait par l'intermédiaire du compte que chaque banque a à la Banque de France.

SCÈNE 1. Vous demandez à chacune des banques de procéder d'abord, s'il y a lieu, aux règlements entre les comptes de leurs propres clients (qu'on appelle par extension « compensation interne »).
Vous laissez chacun des banquiers vérifier que les comptes sont suffisamment provisionnés pour effectuer les opérations de débit et pouvoir ainsi créditer les comptes des bénéficiaires.

SCÈNE 2. Vous demandez aux trois banques de se réunir pour effectuer la compensation entre elles.

Vous laissez chacun des banquiers :

a) Calculer, à partir des chèques qui lui ont été remis à l'encaissement, le total des sommes qu'il a à recevoir des deux autres banques;

b) Calculer avec ses collègues banquiers le solde que chacun devra, selon le cas, ou bien verser, ou bien recevoir des autres banques;

c) S'échanger les chèques de manière que chaque banquier récupère les chèques émis par ses clients pour pouvoir les débiter des comptes.

> *Voici, à titre d'illustration, un exemple chiffré qui vous permettra de mieux comprendre le mécanisme de la compensation :*
>
> La banque Jaune reçoit trois chèques tirés sur la banque Bleue : 500, 1.000, 300; la banque Bleue reçoit quatre chèques tirés sur la banque Jaune : 200, 600, 400, 100. Au lieu de s'effectuer mutuellement les sept paiements, les deux banques vont compenser : la banque Bleue doit à la banque Jaune 500 + 1.000 + 300 = 1.800 F.
> La banque Jaune doit à la banque Bleue 200 + 600 + 400 + 100 = 1.300 F.
> La compensation remplace ainsi les sept opérations par le seul règlement du solde, soit 1.800 — 1.300 = 500, que la banque Bleue doit à la banque Jaune.

SCÈNE 3. Lors de la compensation, chaque banquier a récupéré les chèques émis par ses propres clients. Il doit maintenant débiter leurs comptes. Il vérifie donc que ceux-ci sont provisionnés. Apparaît alors le chèque sans provision (que le banquier a pu trouver lors de la compensation interne). Le banquier rejette le chèque. Il adresse alors à son client une lettre d'injonction (qu'il remplit au préalable), lui demandant de régulariser sa situation dans les 15 jours. L'élève dépose sur son compte le chèque de 5.000 F de son salaire. Le compte peut alors être débité au profit du gérant; l'élève garde son droit d'émettre des chèques.

Vos explications

> ### *Qu'est-ce qu'un chèque sans provision ?*
>
> Un chèque sans provision est un chèque tiré sur un compte insuffisamment provisionné. En général, la banque rejette un tel chèque, ce qui constitue un incident de paiement.
>
> Chaque fois qu'un chèque est rejeté par la banque pour défaut ou insuffisance de provision, la banque adresse au titulaire du compte une lettre recommandée appelée lettre d'injonction. Le titulaire du compte a la possibilité de régulariser sa situation dans un délai de 15 jours, soit en payant directement le montant du ou des chèques, soit en provisionnant suffisamment son compte. Dans ce cas, il peut continuer d'émettre des chèques.
>
> On ne peut régulariser qu'une fois en 12 mois. Donc, si un deuxième incident intervient pendant les 12 mois, l'interdiction de chèque est automatique. S'il n'a pas régularisé dans le délai de 15 jours, sa faculté d'émettre des chèques lui est retirée pour 12 mois. Le titulaire du compte doit alors rendre à la banque dont il est client la totalité des chèques utilisables en sa possession. S'il est client de plusieurs banques, il doit rendre à chacune des banques les chèques qu'elles lui ont délivrés.
>
> Cette interdiction est fichée à la Banque de France pendant 3 ans. Tout établissement bancaire ou de crédit peut, en interrogeant la Banque de France, savoir qu'un incident de paiement a eu lieu. Mais, en plus, le titulaire du compte risque d'être poursuivi par le bénéficiaire du chèque pour escroquerie; les peines encourues sont alors une amende de 3.600 à 2.500.000 F, mais aussi de 1 à 5 ans de prison.

APPENDIX B

Oral Proficiency Level	Function	Context	Accuracy
	(Tasks accomplished, attitudes expressed, tone conveyed)	(Topics, subject areas, activities, and jobs addressed)	(Acceptability, quality, and accuracy of message conveyed)
5	Functions equivalent to an educated native speaker	All subjects	Performance equivalent to an educated native speaker
4	Able to tailor language to fit audience, counsel, persuade, negotiate, represent a point of view, and interpret for dignitaries	All topics normally pertinent to professional needs	Nearly equivalent to an educated native speaker; speech is extensive, precise, appropriate to every occasion, with only occasional errors
3	Can converse in formal and informal situations, resolve problems, situations, deal with unfamiliar topics, provide explanations, describe in detail, offer supported opinions, and hypothesize	Practical, social, professional, and abstract topics, particular interests, and special fields of competence	Errors never interfere with understanding and rarely disturb the native speaker; only sporadic errors in basic structure
2	Able to fully participate in casual conversations, can express facts, give instructions, describe, report, and provide narration about current, past, and future activities	Concrete topics such as own background, family, interests, work, travel, and current events	Understandable to native speaker not used to dealing with foreigners; sometimes miscommunicates
1	Can create with the language, ask and answer questions, participate in short conversations	Everyday survival topics and courtesy requirements	Intelligible to native speaker used to dealing with foreigners
0	No functional ability	None	Unintelligible

Source: Judith E. Liskin-Gasparro. *ETS Oral Proficiency Testing Manual*. Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1982.

APPENDIX C

Level: Novice
Skill: Speaking

Content

General topics such as . . .

- Basic classroom objects
- Colors
- Numbers 0–100
- Clothing
- Telling time
- Dates (month/day/current year)
- Weather/seasons
- Family members
- Self-identification (nationality and profession)
- Simple greetings
- Courtesy expressions like please, thank you, sorry, pardon me, etc.
- Money denominations

Functions

Can use limited memorized material in simple statement or question form

- Naming/identifying objects, people, places, signs
- Giving name, place of origin, simple personal information
- Expressing belonging to organization, family, institution
- Expressing minimal courtesy
- Expressing agreement/disagreement

Techniques

- Personalized questions
- Personalized completions
- Personalized true/false
- Matching
- Sentence builders
- Word associations
- Group puzzles
- Surveys and polls
- Conversation cards
- Forced choice
- Slash sentences
- Directed dialogue
- Logical conclusions

Accuracy

Generally intelligible when using memorized or highly familiar material, but unintelligible when going beyond learned utterances (except to teachers, fellow students, others used to dealing with learners of the target language)

- One- or two-word answers
- Listing
- Enumerating

Source: Alice C. Omaggio. Teaching Language in Context.
Boston, MA,: Heinle & Heinle, 1986.

Level: Novice
Skill: Writing

Content

General topics such as . . .

- Basic classroom objects
- Colors
- Numbers
- Clothing
- Names
- Dates
- Nationality
- Biographical information
- Weather/seasons
- Family members

Functions

Can copy and transcribe very simple material in familiar contexts

Can list, identify, label

Can supply simple biographical information on forms

Can write very simple paragraphs using memorized or extremely familiar material

Techniques

- Simple description with visuals
- Paragraph completion
- Cloze passages
- Sentence builders
- Dictations and variations
- Filling in forms
- Cinquin poetry

Accuracy

Material may be characterized by frequent misspellings and inaccuracies, especially when writer ventures beyond very familiar material

Level: Intermediate
Skill: Speaking

Content

Everyday survival topics such as . . .

- Personal/biographical information
- Restaurant/foods
- Asking/giving directions
- Activities/hobbies
- Transportation
- Talking on phone
- Lodging/living quarters
- Money matters
- Health matters
- Post office
- Numbers 1–1000
- Customs
- Shopping/making purchases

Courtesy/social requirements such as . . .

- Greetings/introductions
- Making appointments
- Making meeting arrangements
- Accepting/refusing invitations
- Polite, formulaic expressions

Functions

- Can create with the language
  - Can make up own sentences not limited to very familiar or memorized material
  - Can participate in short conversations
  - Can ask and answer questions
  - Can get into, through, and out of a simple survival situation
  - Can transfer current learned material to new situations/contexts

Techniques

- Personalized questions
- Personalized completions
- Personalized true/false
- Sentence builders
- Dialogue/story adaptation
- Create a story with visuals
- Chain stories
- Describing objects/processes
- Surveys and polls
- Conversation cards
- Paired interviews
- Social interaction activities
- Group consensus/problem solving
- Story telling
- Forced Choice
- Role Plays
- Slash sentences
- Elaboration
- Giving definitions
- Guided description/narration
- Asking related questions
- Logical questions

Accuracy

- Comprehensible to native speaker used to dealing with target-language learners
  - Some accuracy in basic structures
  - Uses short sentences
  - Minimal sociolinguistic knowledge in evidence
  - Very basic vocabulary related to content areas listed

Level: Intermediate
Skill: Writing

Content

Everyday topics such as . . .

Personal biographical information
Restaurants, foods
Asking, giving directions
Activities, hobbies
Preferences
Daily Routine
Lodging
Health matters
Travel and transportation
School/work experiences
Everyday events

Functions

Can create statements and questions well enough to meet practical needs and some limited social demands

Can write . . .
- Short messages
- Paragraphs
- Notes/letters
- Short compositions
- Can take simple notes

Techniques

Descriptions with visuals
Paragraph completion
Cloze passages
Dictations and variations
Graphic fill-ins
Slash sentences
Telegraphic cues
Partial translation
Sentence combining
Elaboration
Guided descriptions and narrations
Composition based on interview
Dialogue journals
Daily journals and diaries
Guided and free composition

Accuracy

Comprehensible to native speakers used to dealing with the writing of nonnatives

Good control of basic constructions, although errors may still be patterned

Frequent errors when venturing beyond simple structures and vocabulary

Generally able to write in present time using everyday, common vocabulary

May have limited dictionary skills

Very limited in use of cohesive elements of discourse

Level: Advanced
Skill: Speaking

Content

Content widens to include numerous topics, generally of a factual nature, such as . . .

Current events
Press, media
Politics
Economics
Education
Leisure, travel, vacations
Cultural and moral issues
History
Customs and mores

Functions

Can narrate and describe in present, past, future time

Can fully participate in casual conversations

Can give instructions, simple reports

Can deal with complications in such situations as one might encounter in living in the target culture

Complaints, emergency situations, talking one's way out of trouble, etc.

Can make simple comparisons

Techniques

Personalized questions
Personalized true/false
Personalized completions
Dialogue/story adaptation
Chain stories
Group picture stories
Descriptions of objects/processes
Surveys/polls
Conversation cards
Paired interviews
Guided narrations
Forced choice
Debates
Group consensus/problem solving
Role plays
Elaboration
Giving definitions
Guided descriptions
Reactions to opinion questions
Situations with complications

Accuracy

Comprehensible to native speakers not used to dealing with foreigners

Sometimes miscommunicates, though good general vocabulary, with some circumlocution

Accent intelligible

Elementary grammar/syntax quite accurate

Patterns of error in more complex structures

Able to speak in paragraphs rather than in short sentences

Level: Advanced
Skill: Writing

Content

Topics widen to include . . .

Many familiar and everyday topics
Current events
Factual and concrete topics relating to personal interests

Functions

Can write social and more formal correspondence,
discourse of several paragraphs,
cohesive summaries,
resumes with some detail,
description and narration

Can take notes

Can explain point of view simply

Can do some paraphrasing

Techniques

Detailed descriptions with visuals
Dictations and variations
Partial translation
Sentence combining
Elaboration
Guided descriptions and narrations
Compositions with rewrites
Peer editing
Process-oriented composing tasks
Pastiches
Dialogue journals

Accuracy

Comprehensible to native speakers not used to dealing with writing of nonnatives

Style obviously foreign yet joins sentences in relatively cohesive paragraphs

Sufficient vocabulary for self-expression with good control of basic morphology and elementary constructions

Controls language well enough to narrate and describe in some detail in past, present, and future time

May still have quite a few errors in basic constructions but generally not patterned, except in more complicated structures

Level: Superior
Skill: Speaking

Content

Can handle most practical, social, abstract, and professional topics

Special fields of competence

Particular fields of interest

Functions

Can hypothesize

Can support opinions, persuade

Can describe in detail

Can narrate in detail with precision

Techniques

Agree/disagree
Personalized questions
Surveys/polls
Persuasion
Group consensus/problem solving
Elaboration
Paraphrasing/creative language use
Sociolinguistic competence-building activities—functional/notional practice
Description of objects and processes (detailed)
Paired interviews
Debates
Levels of speech (style shifting)
Role Plays with complications
Simultaneous interpretation
Vocabulary extension (brainstorming, vocabulary building in categories to develop precision, synonyms and near-synonyms, study of idioms)

Accuracy

All the language forms are controlled relatively well

Occasional (unpatterned) errors in common structures

Some patterns of error in more complex structures

Errors rarely disturb the native speaker or interfere with comprehension

Vocabulary broad, through not always idiomatic or precise

Level: Superior
Skill: Writing

Content

A wide range of practical, social, and professional topics

Specialized fields of interest

Functions

Can use written language effectively for formal and informal exchanges

Can hypothesize and conjecture

Can write all types of correspondence and short research papers

Can support point of view, defend hypotheses

Techniques

Prose style analyses
Peer editing
Process-oriented composing tasks
Pastiches
Translations (native language to foreign language and vice versa)
Extensive note taking
Full transcription

Accuracy

Good control of a full range of structures

Wide vocabulary

Discourse competence includes use of complex and compound sentences, coherent paragraphing

No patterns of errors

Style may still be foreign

May not yet tailor writing effectively to different audiences or styles

ENTRE NOUS: A TUTORIAL APPROACH TO THE TEACHING OF BUSINESS FRENCH

by

Arthur P. Chaisson
Suffolk University
Beacon Hill
Boston, MA 02114

Entre Nous: A Tutorial Approach to the Teaching of Business French.

Arthur P. Chiasson
Suffolk University

1. The Institution.

Since the program we will examine together is specific and possibly unique to the college where I teach, it will be helpful for us to get acquainted, albeit briefly, with the institution and its components.

Suffolk University is located in Boston, Massachusetts at the top of the north slope of Beacon Hill, just adjacent to the Massachusetts State House. It is a commuter school, small, private and urban. There are three colleges within the University, the Law School, the School of Management and the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences.

2. The Department.

Within the last college mentioned, the language programs of the University are housed in the Humanities and Languages Department. The three languages offered are French, German and Spanish. Majors are available in French and Spanish, German being offered at only first and second year levels.

In addition to the major in French and Spanish, there also exists a double major between either language and any other discipline in the CLAS. The most frequent combinations have been between the two languages themselves or French and Government, French and History.

Besides the double major possibility, a student has the option of taking any of several minors in the department. We have two straight language minors in French and Spanish requiring 18 credit hours of course work. There is a CROSS program consisting of a major in Sociology with a 21 hour language commitment in Spanish. The vocational intent of the very name of this program requires little elaboration.

In both French and Spanish, a program is offered in conjunction with the Journalism department. Track B: Journalism and Bilingual Communication geared to prepare students for careers in bilingual media work, newspapers, magazines and advertising.

Finally, and most importantly, the program in International Economics given in French and Spanish in conjunction with the

Economics Department. The student majors in the Economics Department and for a B.A. degree does 21 credit hours of course work in French or Spanish, or for a B.S. degree does 18 credit hours of course work in French or Spanish. A general description of the program follows:

3. The International Economics Program.
   A. Program Outline.

The Department of Economics and the Department of Humanities and Modern Languages offer under joint sponsorship a career-oriented program that combines the theory of international economics and trade with practical training in a foreign languages, and the political, economic and cultural history of the foreign people.

International Economics is offered in both the B.A. and B.S. format. In recent years there has been a notable trend in many American industries, in which increasing emphasis is placed on broad liberal arts background in the employee recruitment process. Students who wish to acquire this broad liberal preparation should select the B.A. format. The foreign language requirement for that degree is automatically met by the language requirement of the program itself. Students who wish to acquire the maximum depth of professional expertise in international business will select the B.S. option, which places a relatively strong emphasis upon the systems of economic interchange that link nations together in the world community.

B.A. Degree **Freshman**	**Sem.Hrs.**	**B.S. Degree** **Freshman**	**Sem.Hrs.**
English	6	English	6
Integrated Studies	6	Integrated Studies	6
Math	6	Math	6
Humanities Option Requirement	3	Humanities Option Requirement	3
Social Science Option Requirement	3	Social Science Option Requirement	3
Free electives	6	Free electives	6
	30		30

Sophomore	**Sem.Hrs.**	**Sophomore**	**Sem.Hrs.**
English	6	English	6
Logic, Speech	6	Logic, Speech	6
Foreign Languages	6	Foreign Languages	6

Economics 281,282......6
Accounting 211,212.....6

30

Junior **Sem.Hrs.**

Marketing 310, 321......6
Foreign Languages.......6
Natural Science
Option Requirement......8
Social Science F213.....3

Economics 291,292,383...9

32

Senior **Sem.Hrs**

Foreign Language........6
Area Studies
Electives...............3
Social Science Option
Requirement.............3
Economics 441,442.......3
Marketing 421...........6
Free Electives..........6

30

Economics 281,282.........6
Accounting 211,212........6

30

Junior **Sem.Hrs.**

Foreign Languages.........6
Economics 261,292,383.....9
Social Science F213.......3
Marketing 310.............3
Natural Science

Option Requirement........8
Area Studies Elective*....3

32

Senior **Sem.Hrs.**

Foreign Language..........6
Economics 441,442,444.....9
Finance 310,417...........6
Marketing 321,421.........3
Free Elective.............3

30

(NOTE: SEE APPENDIX I FOR DESCRIPTION OF ECONOMICS COURSES ABOVE, APPENDIX II FOR FRENCH COURSES ABOVE AND APPENDIX III FOR ACCOUNTING, GOVERNMENT AND FINANCE COURSES)

Now that an overall view of the university, college and language department has been given, we must now focus upon the language component in the various programs and especially in International Economics since this is the aim of our examination.

B. The Language Component.

If we look at numbers in the various programs within the department, we find that relatively few students pursue the straight major, the straight minor, the program CROSS or Bilingual Education; only a handful in each language in any given year. The backbone of the student population in the department is made up of those taking a B.A. degree in any discipline in the college (there is a one-year FL requirement at level of placement for B.A. degree but none for B.S.) and students enrolled in the International Economics program. From the latter, we presently have more than two dozen students working their way through the program.

Since we have, as you have seen, a varied clientele and since, admittedly, we are a small department (each semester 2 sections of Intro French and Spanish are given along with one course at each of the following levels: intermediate, advanced-intermediate and advanced). The restricted number of courses must somehow be made to serve multiple purposes while, at the same time, preserving credibility and academic standards. Occasionally, when time and scheduling permit, we offer one or two semesters of literature. But overall, ours is, for better or worse, a language department with a specific vocational orientation.

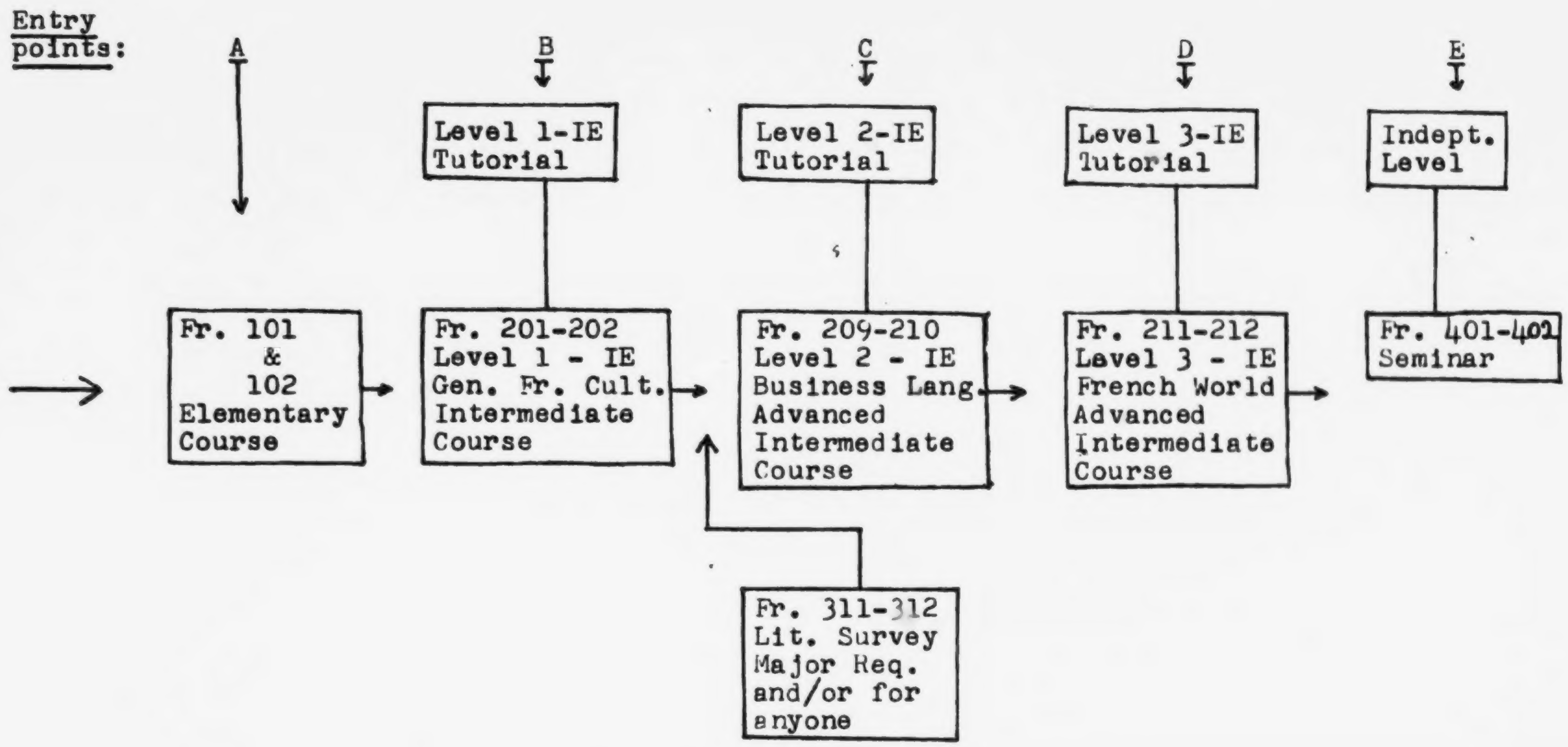
C. Implementation.

For the purpose of demonstrating how a small language curriculum can serve a multi-need clientele, we have included a chart of the French language model.
(See following page 4A)

The chart which shows a modular pathway for a student majoring in International Economics can also be referred to for the purpose of tracing the program progress of a student in any other area of language study.

Level is always determined by a placement device: either an exam or an interview with the instructor, including a review of the student's past language record.

Having laid out the procedure, let us take a hypothetical student who places in second year and wishes to specialize in French and Bilingual Communications. This student would go through second year and then, either French 209-210 and/or French 211-212 depending on which was being offered. The student may wish or be urged by the instructor to carry out specific assignments using materials from the French press. This supplementary work would be done under the care of the tutor


Entry points:
A
B
C
D
E
Level 1-IE Tutorial
Level 2-IE Tutorial
Level 3-IE Tutorial
Indept. Level
Fr. 101 & 102 Elementary Course
Fr. 201-202 Level 1 - IE Gen. Fr. Cult. Intermediate Course
Fr. 209-210 Level 2 - IE Business Lang. Advanced Intermediate Course
Fr. 211-212 Level 3 - IE French World Advanced Intermediate Course
Fr. 401-402 Seminar
Fr. 311-312 Lit. Survey Major Req. and/or for anyone

COURSE OFFERINGS - FRENCH SECTION, SUFFOLK UNIVERSITY
PARADIGM FOR INTERNATIONAL ECONOMICS PROGRAM

during an assigned hour on a weekly basis.

It is important to note that the tutorials are mandatory only for International Economics Majors. This is due to the special requirements of the program which will be explained below. Students in other areas of language study are encouraged to avail themselves of the services of the two French foreign student assistants in order to do specific work in their particular field of endeavor.

As one can see, the key concept to the language program at Suffolk University is flexibility. The language curriculum core courses are taken by students in all the areas of French language study. The specific support for their area of interest is obtained through the tutorial system. A description of this system follows.

4. The Foreign Student Assistant Tutoring Program.

A. Its History.

About twenty years ago, members of the language department approached the administration with a proposal to create three positions of foreign student assistant in the college, one for each of the languages taught, viz., French, German and Spanish. The intent was to bring a native presence to the department by having the foreign student assistants not only interact and help their American peers, but also take courses along with them. For ten hours of service to the language department per week, the assistant received (and still does) full tuition remission (now at $6,300) and a monthly stipend of $150.00.

B. Tutorial Assistance.

In the early years of this program, the assistant's duties were oriented more toward "animation" and some remedial tutoring work. but in the last four years since the start of the International Economics program, their role has been one of activating the language students' area of specialization. In previous years, we sought after liberal arts types to fill the assistantships; but now with the majority of our advance French students in International Economics, we look for French-speaking students in business or related fields. We presently have a Belgian whose major is in Computer Science and another Belgian originally from Zaire who is himself enrolled in the International Economics program.

C. Its Organization.

The present organization of this peer tutoring program is as follows:

i. The Foreign Student assistants spend most of their committed time as tutors to the International Economics students.

ii. They perform some remedial language work for any students with special problems.

iii. They help with the organization and implementation of the "cercles de conversation". These are satellite groups that are formed within the advanced intermediate classes. In these "cercles", as an example, International Economics majors will split off in one group for conversation training on the subject of, let us say, banking. At the same time, several other students not specializing in International Economics will split off to form another conversation group to discuss newspaper articles they have studied. This supports specific oral training for students in the Bilingual Communications program. The "cercles" meet on the average of every two weeks and at any given time during these hours, there are usually three conversation groups in operation, each one functioning according to the needs of its students.

iv. The Foreign Students participate in the functions of the department, cultural affairs, language tables, lectures and attend any lectures in International Economics in the metropolitan area.

D. Advantages over Adjunct Faculty.

If there are advantages in having peer tutors, rather than adjunct faculty, they are in my view, first, that the assistants, being themselves students at Suffolk University, are almost always on campus and more frequently available. There is also the advantage that they are roughly the same age as the students and have a more congenial rapport with them. And of course, financially, it is less expensive. Three assistants giving ten hours a week for a total of thirty hours, costs the University $2250 per semester. This represents only one course commitment (or 40 hours per semester) for an adjunct faculty member. The numbers, as they often do, speak for themselves.

E. Disadvantages.

The assistants who are energetic, enthusiastic and zealous are also relatively untrained and need to be initiated into the complexity of the program. This takes time and supervision on the part of the instructor responsible for the course. The first six months require attention and frequent mini-meetings to discuss problems, schedules, routines and methodologies. In general, after the first period of initiation the program assumes the rhythm of a more regular operation. There is one outstanding difficulty which recurs every semester and that is a matter of scheduling. Each language student has his/her own personal class hours and hours when they work. (Suffolk students work an average of 20-25 hours, some work even more.) The tutors also have their own routines to follow, including their class commitments. This entails a certain amount of reshuffling and accommodation at the outset of each term.

F. Point of Conjunction.

The points at which the target language informs the economics major are first in the course titled French 209-210, a course for all French concentrators, business or otherwise, second, in the International Economics Tutorials (1 hour per week each semester) and third, in the International Economics section of the "cercles de conversation".

5. Pedagogical Approaches and Resources.

A. In-class Techniques and Goods.

The instructor remains the principal driver in the various courses. That represents an assured thread of continuity and a guarantee of academic credibility in a program which must be flexible to survive. The reader may refer to Appendix IV for a list of texts used in all the French Courses. One will notice that the elementary and intermediate level texts are, as expected, quite general in nature. The four advanced intermediate texts stress continuing structural review and commercial language as well as a cultural and historical view of French in the world. The tutors participate in class work, as we have mentioned, by helping to coordinate and co-sponsor the "cercles de conversation". They occasionally give brief talks on cultural and/or business matters in class. Also they have given "dictees" (dictations) to accustom students to French voices other than only that of their instructor.

B. Tutorial Techniques and Goals.

Within the tutorial sessions themselves, we have already identified several functions carried out by the foreign student assistants. The key concept here is, of course, personalized instruction. It is the International Economics students who receive the most methodical attention due to the nature and demands of the program in which they are enrolled. The instructor consults frequently with the tutors regarding the problems and weaknesses of individual students. Remedial work is recommended where necessary, all the while being sure to advance the student along the road to competence within the curricular structure of the course. The reader may want to consult Appendix V to see a list of the texts and periodicals used in the tutorial sessions.

C. Conjunction of Classroom and Tutorial Work.

The frequency of contact between the instructor and the tutor assures a sort of program integrity. They meet at least three time weekly if not more. The tutors' written evaluations of students' progress is required toward the end of each semester. International Economics students must write papers and make oral presentations in the "cercles de conversation". Their progress is gauged, in part, by these activities and their course grades are determined mostly by classwork and exams taken in classes, though a part of the grade is influenced by the quality of their participation in the tutorial aspect of the program.

D. Placement within the Program: Some Problems.

Manageability of a program so diverse has its problems at times. The reason is that not only are the students different in their career aspirations but also they all have different levels of language skills when they enter the program. It is difficult to achieve a concept of "class" when the participants vary as much one from the other as the legendary snowflakes. Because of the scheduling pressures on the students and the program, some participants back-place themselves i.e., enter at a level below their competence, sometimes referred to as "cum-boosting". Others, because of conflicts in other areas, place themselves above their level of competence sometimes referred to as "biting off more than one can chew". Either misplacement affects the profile of a given class and causes difficulties in deciding where to aim in setting course goals. Much jawboning and negotiation takes place at the beginning of each semester to try to alleviate this situation, but, alas, we frequently find ourselves, if not in a worst case situation, at least in one of many compromises.

E. Texts.

This is one area in which we feel we are well served. Once again may we refer you to the Appendices for the lists of texts used in class and in the tutorials. The International Economics majors as we recall begin their work officially with the intermediate course, what we call level I for the International Economics program. In the tutorials we have established a list of texts to be used in each of the three main levels of the program. French For Communication by Russo is an example of a text used with students in their first level tutorials. The Guide de Correspondence by Oudot may be used in the second semester of first level. At second and third levels, which may be taken in any order, a good number of texts can be used to provide materials for students' program preferences. We also use a number of periodicals to complement tutorials. A list is included in Appendix V. These materials serve to provide topics for one-to-one discussions; short compositions and brief oral reports on the part of the students.

F. Audio-Visual Support.

This is an area which is undeveloped in our program. However, the administration has allocated $30,000 for a complete modernization program of our out-dated language laboratory. We are looking at some state-of-the-art programs for supplemental language programs in both general language and business language.

G. Internships: InterFuture. (Intercultural Studies for the Future)

This is a junior-year abroad program. InterFuture scholars undertake an intensive experience in intercultural study. During the eight month pre-travel period, the student prepares an intercultural independent study project with the help of a faculty advisor on campus and a series of InterFuture conferences. The participant carries out his/her research at home and then abroad in, if possible, both a North Atlantic and a Third World nation. Overseas for these seven months, an InterFuture scholar becomes as immersed as possible in the host culture(s), studying in each country under a local expert and living with local families and students. This program has been used as a resource for International Economics students. For example, we had a student go to Belgium for spring semester where she lived and studied in Brussels and Liege, comparing aspects of the Belgian steel industry with that of the United States. Her research paper was submitted to her home institution for fifteen semester hours of ungraded (transfer) academic credit.

H. Loans: S.A.F.A.R.I. (Study at Foreign Academically Recognized Institutions)

This is a Suffolk University sponsored loan for study abroad which can be another resource used to help encourage students to study language and business in a foreign country. From the university general fund, the sum of $10,000 was set aside to be used as a rollover fund. In any given year about $7500 of that sum are encumbered since students are not required to repay their loan until after graduation. So there usually remain $2500 each year for allocation to qualifying students. To qualify, a student must be in good standing, provide a project description, be approved by the departmental chairperson and demonstrate competence in his/her chosen field. The loan is interest-free.

6. Present Status and Future Goals.

We have about twelve students at the three levels of our French International Economics courses. Our first graduating IE students will march down the aisle at commencement this year. All of them intend to go on to graduate school's if not in the fall, then next year. They have been looking at schools with MIB programs or graduate programs with international business area studies or concentrations. We feel that the program has worked to a satisfactory degree on their behalf. But more can be done especially in the area of expanding our offerings and resources. We are negotiating with our School of Management to establish a program at the undergraduate level which would have a business foreign language component leading to the award of some sort of certificate as part of the BA/BS degree. This will mean more variety in the fields of concentration among our students, more tutorial time needed, more classroom space and no doubt, a specialist adjunct faculty member at some point in the future when, hopefully, greater enrollments will warrant such expansion. A grant proposal is in the process of being written to help initiate some of the goals we see as necessary for the future of our department and our programs.

APPENDIX I

COURSES IN ECONOMICS FOR INTERNATIONAL ECONOMICS PROGRAM

Economics 281 - Principles of Economics- Micro. An analysis of the economic behavior of individual consumers, producers, and markets. Market structures, market processes, economic welfare, and the evaluation of alternative market structures and processes for their contribution to economic welfare. Supply and demand, elasticities of supply and demand, costs of production, exchange between consumers and producers under alternative assumptions concerning the competitiveness of markets. Prerequisite: Math. 111-112 or Math. 143 or Math. 161. Required of all majors in Economics. 1 term --3 semester hours. Normally offered every semester.

Economics 282 - Principles of Economics - Macro. Analysis of the behavior of the economic system viewed as a whole. Consideration of aggregate economic indicators such as GNP, employment, economic growth, and inflation. The role of government and of governmental monetary and fiscal policy in determining aggregate economic behavior. Problems of economic instability and of economic policy as it contributes to or offers a method of reducing economic instability. The role of financial markets in aggregate economic activity and in the transmission to the aggregate economy of government policy choices. Prerequisite: Econ. 281. Required of all majors in Economics. 1 term - 3 semester hours. Normally offered every semester.

Economics 291 - Introduction to Statistics I. Fundamentals of conomic and business statistics. Collection and presentation of data; frequency distributions; measures of central tendency, dispersion, and skewness; binomial, Poisson, and normal probability distributions; sampling, tests of hypotheses, and simple regression and correlation. Prerequisite: Math. 111 or Math. 143 or Math. 161. Required of all majors in Economics. 1 term --3 semester hours. Normally offered every semester.

Economics 292 - Introduction to Statistics II. Continuation of Introduction to Statistics I. Analysis of variance, nonparametric tests of hypotheses, multiple regression and correlation, introduction to time series analysis, introduction to decision making under uncertainty, Baynes' theorem, and index numbers. Prerequisite: Econ. 291 or Math. 113 or Psy. 215. Required of all majors in Economics. 1 term --3 semester hours.

APPENDIX I (CONTINUED)

Normally offered every semester, beginning Spring 1987.

Economics 383 - Money and Banking. Commercial banking, financial markets, and the Federal Reverve system. Monetary policy and its effects on prices, interest rates, and economic growth. Prerequisite: Econ. 282. Required of all majors in Economics. 1 term --3 semester hours. Normally offered every semester.

Economics 441 - International Trade. The theory of international trade and of tariffs and other barriers to trade. Trade practices of the United States and of developing countries. Economic integration and other multilateral approaches to trade liberalization. Prerequisite: Econ. 282. 1 term --3 semester hours. Normally offered every year.

Economics 442 - International Monetary Relations. The balance of payments and foreign exchange markets and instruments. Balance-of-payments adjustments under alternative exchange-rate systems, international liquidity, and international economic policy. Prerequisite: Econ. 282. 1 term --3 semester hours. Normally offered every year.

Economics 444 - Comparative Economic Systems. Capitalist theory and institutions and Marxist theories of socialism and communism. Comparative analysis of U.S. and foreign economic systems, with special reference to the USSR, China, Japan, Germany, France, and Sweden. Prerequisite: Econ. 282. 1 term --3 semester hours. Normally offered every year, beginning Fall, 1987

APPENDIX II
COURSES IN FRENCH

French 101-102 - Elementary French: Introduction to French Language and Culture. Practice in both oral and written language skills. Audio-visual and textual materials based on French cultural themes. Two language laboratory sessions per week. 2 terms --6 semester hours. Offered yearly.

French 201-202 - Intermediate French: The Language and Civilization of France. Study of the French language using cultural materials as a primary vehicle for the development of language skills. Extensive audio-visual materials support the texts read in class. Prerequisite: French 101-102 or instructor's permission. 2 terms --6 semester hours. Offered yearly.

French 209 - Contemporary French Civilization I. Reading and discussion in French of texts about French society, history, culture, education, politics and economy. Films illustrating aspects of French life relating to the above subjects. Review work in grammar. Prerequisite: French 201-201 or instructor's permission. 1 term --3 semester hours. Offered in Fall term of alternate years.

French 210 - Contemporary French Civilization II. Continuation of language work composition and conversation supplemented by cultural films. Prerequisite: French 210-202 or instructor's permission. 1 term --3 semester hours. Offered in Spring term of alternate years.

French 211 - The French-Speaking World I. A study of France and its institutions with concentration of the influence they have had in countries as diverse as Canada, Haiti and Senegal. Cultural films. Continuing work in Language. Prerequisite: French 201-202 or instructor's permission. 1 term --3 semester hours. Offered in Fall term of alternate years.

French 212 - The French-Speaking World II. Continuation of language work, composition and conversation supplemented by films. Prerequisite: French 201-202 or instructor's permission. 1 term --3 semester hours. Offered in Spring of alternate years.

APPENDIX II (CONTINUED)

French 311 - Masterworks of French Literature I. Great works of French literature from the Middle Ages to the Age of Enlightenment. Authors such as Rabelais, Montaigne, Moliere and Voltaire are read and discussed in relation to the cultural history of their age. Offered in French, and in English with texts in translation. 1 term --3 semester hours. Offered in Fall term.

French 312 - Masterworks of French Literature II. Great works of French literature from the beginning of the 19th century to the present. Authors such as Hugo, Balzac, Baudelaire, Proust, Sartre and Camus are read and discussed in relation to the cultural history of their age. Offered in French, and in English with texts in translation. 1 term --3 semester hours. Offered in Spring term.

French 401-402 - Seminar in French Translation. Texts chosen from French literature as well as from the fields of politics, criticism, economics, sociology and journalistic writing. Prerequisite: French 209, 210, 211, 212; or French 311-312 or equivalent. 2 terms - 6 semester hours. Offered yearly.

French 501-502 - Independent Study. Students meet with a department member to pursue advanced studies in areas of particular interest to them. Instructor's permission.

APPENDIX III

COURSES IN ACCOUNTING, GOVERNMENT AND FINANCE FOR INTERNATIONAL ECONOMICS PROGRAM

ACT 211 - Principles of Accounting I. Examines basic accounting theory and the application of theory to practice. Provides the necessary foundation for those who major in accounting as well as those concentrating in other areas of business. Emphasis is placed on the accounting cycle, periodic reporting and basic balance sheet accounts. The area of international accounting is discussed.

ACT 212 - Principles of Accounting II. Prerequisite: ACT211-Principles of Accounting I. A continuation of ACT 211 with emphasis on alternate business formations, corporate accounts, equity reporting, and dividend treatment. Analyzes cause of changes in liquidity and procedures for examining financial statements through margin analysis and ratio analysis.

MKT 310 - Principles of Marketing. Prerequisites: ACT 212-Principles of Accounting II, EC 281-282 -Principles of Economics I-II (micro-macro), EC 291 - Introduction to Statistics 1 or MA 113 - Elementary Statistics. An introduction to marketing as a functional area of the business enterprise and an analytical survey of problems encountered in developing, promoting and distributing goods and services.

MKT 321 - Introduction to International Business. Prerequisite: MKT 310 - Principles of Marketing. To provide students with an understanding of problems and opportunities associated with doing business across country and cultural boundaries and to encourage global business thinking and strategy formulation. Topics include the forms of international business involvement; economic, social, cultural and political conditions; national and multinational regulations of international transactions and investments; and global strategies for business operations.

APPENDIX III (CONTINUED)

foreign markets and home market. Particular attention is given to the formulation of 1) marketing plans and programs, and 2) policies to integrate and coordinate such activities on a global basis.

FIN 310 - Business Finance. Prerequisites: ACT 212 - Principles of Accounting II, EC 213-214 -Principles of Economics (micro-macro), MA 113 - Elementary Statistics of EC 291 - Introduction to Statistics I. A study of the functions of business finance, forms of business organization, acquiring and administering funds, instruments of corporate finance and capital budgeting.

FIN 417 - Multinational Financial Management. Prerequisite: FIN 310 - Business Finance. Deals with the financing, investment and working capital management process of multinational corporations, considering such variables as exchange risk, political risk, accounting regulations and tax laws.

APPENDIX IV
TEXTS USED IN FRENCH COURSES

French 101-102:	Elementary Course: Valette/Valette, Contacts, Houghton-Mifflin, 1985
French 201-202:	Intermediate Course: Edwards, French Structure in Review, D.C. Heath, 1979
French 209-210:	Advanced-Intermediate Course: Sandler/Whitebook, Tour De Grammaire, D.C. Heath, 1983. Oudot/Gobert, La France: Culture, Economie, Commerce, Houghton-Mifflin, 1983
French 211-212:	Advanced-Intermediate Course: Dietiker, En Bonne Forme, D.C. Heath, 1983 Curcio et al., Nouveau Visage Du Monde Francais, Houghton-Mifflin, 1981
French 311-312:	Masterworks of French Literature: Bishop, A Survey of French Literature, Harcourt, Brace, 1965
French 401-402:	Advanced Course: Seminar in French Translation Selections from French Literature, Politics, Criticism, Economics, Sociology and Journalism.

APPENDIX V

BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR TUTORIALS

I. Texts: (first level) -
Perla, French for Business and Finance, D.C. Heath, 1985
Russo, French for Communication, D.C. Heath, 1985
Oudot, Guide de Correspondence, Passport Books, 1985

(second and third levels)

Castley & Wight, Business Situations French, Longman, 1982
Daney et al., Le Francais des Relations Internationales, Hachette, 1983
Gallo/Sedgwick, French For Careers, Van Nostrand, 1981
Gubach, Francais Commercial, Holt, Rinehart, Winston, 1984
Paton, Business Case Studies French, Longmans, 1980

II. Periodicals: (all levels) -
Le Monde
The Economist
Les Echos: Le Quotidien de l'Economie
Wall Street Journal
L'Express
IMF Survey
Bulletin de Liaison - Chambre de Commerce et d'Industrie de Paris
Forbes

BRIDGING THE GAP BETWEEN INTERNSHIPS ABROAD, THE COMMERCIAL FRENCH CURRICULUM AND THE BUSINESS COMMUNITY

by

Gilles Bousquet

University of Wisconsin-Madison

BRIDGING THE GAP BETWEEN INTERNSHIPS ABROAD, THE COMMERCIAL FRENCH CURRICULUM AND THE BUSINESS COMMUNITY.

The teaching of foreign language for business is a relatively new field. As the pioneers could testify, the fight was intense when it came to establishing such courses in predominantly literature-oriented departments. Fortunately, it is now a recognized field, attracting a respectable number of students, Foreign language majors, but also -and that is so encouraging- students in Business and Economics who realize how a greater proficiency in a foreign language and a good socio-cultural knowledge of foreign countries may tie in with their business studies and influence their career plans.

Our situation has changed further as America suddenly woke up to the competitiveness tune; Overnight, the necessity to perform well abroad became the leitmotif of many speeches. This latest move may constitute a turning point for our programs, if the linguistic and socio-cultural requirements are given the place they deserve in the acquisition of international expertise.

This new situation, however, means that some adjustment will have to be made as more bridges are created between language departments and Business schools. as the linguistic and socio-cultural proficiency needed for international business will be left to us to explore, define and pass on to students. This goes much further than what many of us had anticipated when we started or took over, let's say business French, German or Spanish, simply because it was popular among the students who could read Proust but not translate "checking account". To take on the responsibilities of implementing that language and culture component of internationally-oriented business curricula is a difficult task that will require a lot of thinking, cooperation, and imagination. This task, however, is a great asset for the future. Our programs will firmly establish themselves, not merely as an appendix of foreign language curricula, but rather as indispensable component of international studies and provide a decisive contribution to a better knowledge of foreign countries, an increased ability to communicate in foreign languages, thus paving the way for a true economic competitiveness.

I see the development of our field along two major lines: one is to make an inventory of the numerous course components (topics, activities, assignments, methods) of all the business language programs in US colleges and Universities. This work has already started either through clearinghouses at professional meetings or through surveys created and conducted by devoted colleagues; the other line is that of exploration and experimentation of new courses and activities as a way to strengthen existing syllabi.

Today, I would like to contribute to the latter aspect by presenting an already established internship program in French companies in its relationship to a specific business French program, as well as in relation to its impact on business communities, in France and in the US.

Allow me to briefly introduce the University of Wisconsin-Madison business internship program. The program is co-sponsored and co-organized by the French Department, the Business School and the Regional Chamber of Commerce of Provence-Alpes-Côte-d'Azur, based in Marseille. It is aimed at students in French and Business, mostly seniors who have already spent at least a semester in France. They are placed with small or medium-sized firms, for a period of five weeks during which time they carry out a research project designed to gain an insight into the firm's structure, its operations and its environment. A study guide provides a framework for a detailed report on the host company. The program has several objectives:

1. Through their directed study, the students will acquire an understanding of current practices of selected French firms. in addition, their relations with the company staff will enable them to gain a special awareness of major distinctive socio-cultural features of the French business environment.

2. The students will increase their proficiency in French through their daily exposure to business situations and the study of the firm's past and present projects and related activities.

3. The students will gain an understanding of international business practices since the South of France is closely connected with other E.E.C. countries as well as is the first trading partner of North Africa.

4. French firms will be made aware of Franco-American business opportunities and possible future economic exchanges and cooperation between our State and the South-East region of France.

In its first edition, seven students were placed with solar energy high-tech firms , as well as at the Regional Chamber of Commerce. in 1986, we were able to offer internship positions to nine students in a greater variety of firms, such as in two banks (Crédit Lyonnais and Société Marseillaise de Crédit), a major manufacturer of boat equipment, at the Marseille bureau of International development and in several solar firms. This year, we are proud to offer twelve or more internship positions, in an even greater variety of companies, such a pharmaceutical firm, several computer software manufacturers, an advertising agency, a general engineering firm, two banks, and several positions at the bureau of International development, working with bio-tech and bio-medical firms.

Our program is opened to any college and University in the US. This year, two students from The State University of New-York at Albany, will be among the interns, and we hope to be able to take more students from other Universities in the future.

From the beginning, the research project carried out by the student played a key role in establishing the program. Although the French firms were extremely cooperative, they were not prepared to guide an American student, all the more so as the French students interns those firms might have had in the past, had very different goals from our students'. The objectives of our interns are to observe the company and study the history, structure, operations and environment of the business they are in. The study guide developed by my business colleague Jack Matthews, the co-founder and co-director of the program, includes questions to direct the interns' attention to the following aspects:

1 Administrative structure

2 History of the firm

3 Firms' activities and products

4 Markets and clients of the firm.

5 Channels of distribution and major competitors

6 Marketing strategy and techniques

7 Questions of Human resources (aspects of labor laws; employees representation; communication)

8 Sales data

9 Near-term projections and/or plans.

10 Other considerations

In this last sections, the students are directed to pay closer attention to problems and problem solving, to financing; what are the major problems faced by the firm? What are its relations to government agencies and, last but not least, the students are to recount and document a major project in which the company was involved.

It is well understood with the firm that the students have access to any document pertaining to the firm's activities; the intern's supervisor is instrumental in arranging the necessary meetings and interviews in and outside the firms for the student to complete his/her report. The firms have always been extremely forthcoming, trustful and have always assisted the students.

The student's report is then submitted to Professor Matthews and myself for review and grading at the end of the summer. In addition to this report, we have emphasized, from the start, that a brief report on a comparable business or institution in the US would be greatly interesting for the French firm. Indeed, the first year, prior to our departure, we met with several American solar design and engineering firms, visited the University solar research lab and met with the State solar division.

The growth of our program is mainly due to an increased interest in the French business community. Thanks to our excellent working relationships with the Regional Chamber of

Commerce of Provence-Alpes-Côte-d'Azur, we are able to solicit businesses who have an interest in the US. This interest in the US has been the key to very successful internships. When we approach a given business, we propose that the student carry out a preliminary research, here in the US, on a comparable business, or on a specific market, and we solicit from the French firm a set of topics for our students to investigate. Our interns' first contact with the host company has been greatly improved, as they arrive armed with an interesting set of documents and data on areas of interest to the business. Both parties are better rewarded for their time and efforts; the firms can gain better and first-hand knowledge of products, services or techniques proven successful in this country; in turn, the students find the firm better prepared, they gain a faster and deeper knowledge of the firm's activity and problems, and they may literally be hired by the French firm to conduct additional in the US, all expenses paid. But I will come back to this aspect later.

Keeping the students' report in mind, let us examine how their activities during the internship period can be related to various topics in our commercial French curricula. I shall use here the "survey of French Business courses in American Colleges and Universities", conducted by Judith G. Frommer. Harvard University and published in French for Business and International Trade, Volume I, n.3, Fall 1985, in which she highlighted what subjects seemed to be common to a lot of business French courses. "The content of French business courses varies from institution to institution... According to the questionnaire responses, correspondence, business terminology, translation are included in nearly all business French courses... Advertising and banking are covered in most courses.." (p.3)

Furthermore, if we consider the complete list of nineteen topics listed in the questionnaire, it is easy to notice how a given research project conducted following an internship fits right within the major topics covered by most programs, and therefore provides students with an incredible illustration, a five-week long application exercise. It is only then a matter of choice to be made between the instructor and the students to decide what aspects of the business (i.e. what topics) will be particularly appropriate to study while in the company. For instance, a student with minimal business skills and a high level of French proficiency could concentrate on correspondence. The intern would ask the secretary to be able to read all letters addressed to the business, follow up what responses are given, sort out various forms of correspondence-from a standard business letter to a customer, a order letter, a complaint, a company memo, minutes of a meetings, telexes etc.. The same student could then during the last two weeks or so. be entrusted to write some of the responses; and naturally, the intern must familiarize him/herself with the "Minitel".

Research projects while in the company rarely cover all the items enumerated above; Far from it; all the projects we supervised so far focused on a few related items, which the students attempted to explore and document as precisely as possible. Let me briefly present another intern's report bearing upon import/export. The student spent the whole five weeks in the international sales division of a medium-sized, yet very efficient firm specializing in electronic equipment for boats(electromagnetic logs, compasses and the like). As her report indicates, she first toured the company and managed to get a good grasp of a firm where the research and product development divisions are predominant. This company exports a good deal of her production. After doing some specialized translation for the export sales manager, she devoted the rest of her internship to export procedures by reviewing a series of contracts with other firms in and outside the E.E.C. She became familiar with air/sea or ground transportation documents, customs procedures, invoices, order forms etc... She proudly collected photocopies of these real transactions, gave them and added " there, for when you teach the chapter on import/export".

I always marvel when I visit the host firms and see our interns closely associated with the company's operations. Every second of their stay is a valuable moment during which they learn, either through discussion, reading, on-site visit or by merely being privy to everything that takes place in the firm, good or not so good. As for language acquisition, needless to say, it is a dream; about 8 to 9 hours a day, alone, surrounded by French people most of whom know very little English, immersed in company jargon and business talk. We have found that, far from being relaxing-indeed the program may be misleading when we mention "South of France, Summer"-the internships are very stressful, even causing a certain amount of anxiety; consequently, we never take students who are not already familiar with major aspects of French life and culture. Thus, All their attention is focused on business terminology, operations and day to day happenings.

An internship program can become an essential part of your business language program; I have attempted to show what a tremendous training advantage it can give your students. But moreover, I also believe that a language internship program in a foreign country can have a significant impact on a business community, in both countries. By so doing, it all of a sudden removes your language program from the sole realm of the academia to lend it strong credibility in the eyes of that portion of the business community involved in International Trade.

I mentioned earlier that we found that French firms interested in the US market are much more responsive to the internship program. Indeed, in the past year several interns have successfully acted as trade intermediaries for some of the French companies. One solar company last year hosted an intern who had a double major in French and marketing. Our student was in the company at the same time as a young engineer and while a major new solar shower unit for outdoor use (campground, beaches) was being developed. She witnessed all that process, wrote her report. At the end of the internship, the French firm, very pleased by the student's work and attitude, proposed to the student to carry out a preliminary market research in the US for the new product, plane ticket and all expenses paid. The student would be accompanied by the French engineer. She took the position and generated a substantial market report for the given product.

The most incredible success story so far is that of another intern who was placed at the Marseille's bureau of International development. While visiting several high-tech companies, he was approached by one who had tried to contact some American firms to sell portable hyperbaric chambers (pressurized oxygen chambers for victims of decompression sickness, carbon monoxide poisoning and other accidents) that they manufactured. Back here our student agreed to follow up on behalf of the French firm, found an interested American company, negotiated for the French. The company head came to the States over Christmas, successfully completed the deal and offered our student to be his exclusive representative on the US territory. In the meantime, $ 1 million worth of equipment is being sold and the student got us on the first page of the Milwaukee Journal...

In brief, allow me to outline the two main types of research projects carried out by our students. The first type revolves around the study guide put together by Professor Matthews. In a medium-size company, the coverage of the ten points outlined above, supported by the appropriate documents, provides the student with an exceptional overview of a business operations and environment. This type of research is ideal for straight French majors with no other business exposure than our business French classes.

The other type of project consists in a two-tier report. the first stage is a more general account of the business operations; the second stage focuses on the creation and completion of an innovative research task in the company, in keeping with the student's business skills and based on a real-life problem or aspect in the company's operations. (two students designed and carried out specific market studies; one created a special computer program to help customers choose an appropriate financing for their solar homes and equipment).

From what precedes, it becomes obvious that we can play an important role as intermediaries between 2 business communities. Far from shying away from that role, I welcome it. I believe that such experiences can show American businesses how a high proficiency in a Foreign language and the ability to function abroad can be decisive in getting a foothold on that foreign market; how we, language departments can be valuable pools of resources, actively contributing to international exchange and the economic development of our state.

Once successful channels of communication have been established with the business community, we should be able to overcome that natural impression of mistrust on both sides; To get businesses behind us, even nominally only, is and will be decisive in our growth process. the types of contacts our students establish for the French, they could easily make for American firms. Internship programs foster on strong ties with business communities and business institutions abroad. On the other hand, to train students better attune to new needs of businesses involved in international trade, one must entertain an open and productive relationship with those companies who are aware of Foreign language and area studies contribution to their efforts.

The last word comes, from Washington, in the form of an encouragement. J. David Edwards, of the Joint National Committee for Languages, reported, in along article on "Foreign languages education for international competitiveness: recent initiatives": "Congress reauthorized the 1986 Higher Education Act. Title VI, and Representative Leon Panetta successfully amended the bill to provide to provide grants to colleges and Universities funds for internships for foreign language students to work overseas...[later, in the article, he noted]...there is mounting evidence that international internships are among the best ways to acquire international business expertise".

Gilles Bousquet
University of Wisconsin-Madison.

TEACHING FRENCH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE
FOR THE HEALTH PROFESSIONS:
DESCRIPTION OF THE DESIGN PROCESS

Presentation by Rose Méry-Gorrie

at the Sixth Annual Conference

on Languages and Communication for

World Business and the Professions

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INTRODUCTION

Before focusing on curriculum design, I would first like to present the historical setting in which we operate. At the Children's Hospital of Eastern Ontario, we are especially interested in the health professions and the various stages which serve as a basis for the development of functional French-as-a-second-language training programs.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

This hospital is situated in Ottawa, Canada's National Capital. In the heart of an officially bilingual country, with the Province of Quebec just across the Ottawa river, this Hospital has to serve eastern Ontario and western Quebec as it is the only center to offer primary, secondary and tertiary care for children. As such, it has to be able to provide services in the country's two official languages: English and French. We must keep in mind here the Hospital's catchment area and the linguistic mix of the surrounding population: Quebec, predominantly French; the Capital with 36% French-speaking inhabitants.

The Children's Hospital opened its doors in 1974. Its avowed aim was to provide bilingual services to the user population. It was then and still is especially difficult to find bilingual health care professionals. It was therefore necessary to offer French as a second language training programs to the Hospital's staff to bridge this gap. Courses were first provided by the Public Service Commission, then by a local College; but the specific language needs of the staff were not adequately met as hardly any job-related matter was taught. So, in 1982, I was hired to develop occupationally-related language training programs that would meet the needs of physicians, nurses, medical secretaries and allied health staff.

Quebec had previously experienced a need for functional language teaching after going through a major linguistic change as of 1976 and was using specific French-as-a-second-language programs for the health care professions. These, however, were only available at the intermediate level. Participants had to have about 400 hours of French before they undertook such an endeavour. The Children's Hospital's Senior Administration did not think it had the time or the need to wait for its staff to reach such a proficiency before attempting to become functionally bilingual. The result was to have functional programs for beginners and false beginners developed in order to enable staff to communicate efficiently with both patients and public at large as quickly as possible.

CURRICULUM DESIGN PROCESS

Our approach is based on the following assertions:

1. The teaching of French as a second language to health care professionals should be work-related (i.e. functional in our terms).

2. A "functional" program must include a specific content adapted to the professional's second language needs.

3. One can select and organize content so as to enable the French-as-a-second-language training participant to reach, in the shortest possible time, a minimal communicative competence. It is therefore possible to offer specialized courses to real beginners.

Even in the 1980's, the fundamental principles of curriculum design found in R. Tyler's "Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction" (1949), H. Taba's "Curriculum Development -- Theory and Practice" (1962), and M. Knowle's

"Modern Practice of Adult Education" (1970) for the adult education component are still valid. These steps are: needs analysis, formulation of objectives, selection of objectives, selection of content, organization of content, selection of learning activities, organization of learning activities and evaluation.

I will now walk you through these developmental stages, but will only consider the nursing program because of time constraints.

1. Needs Analysis

Needs analysis was a favorite topic of the 1970's. In "Identifying Language Needs in a Systems Approach to the Learning of a Modern Language", R. Richterich and J.L. Chancerel wrote: "The learner occupies the central position ... Everything starts from him and everything goes back to him. It is not merely in relation to him, but with him, and depending on his resources that his learning objectives will be defined, that the methods of judging when and how they have been attained will be selected, and that a curriculum of learning will be made available to him". In 1980, Richterich was saying: "One of the characteristics of the adult learner is his desire to learn rapidly something he can use immediately". So, to provide a pertinent work-related program, one has to know what the participants' actual linguistic needs are. First, we tried to answer the following questions: 1. What will be the status and characteristics of the learner as a second language user? 2. With what kind of people will he/she be communicating (status and characteristics)? 3. Which speech acts will he/she have to use and react to? 4. In which situations will he/she have to do so? 5. What will the exchanges be about?

I visited every nursing unit and spent some time observing what was being done and listening to what was being said. This yielded some recurring language situations the inclusion of which was thought to be mandatory in the forthcoming program. Then a language needs analysis questionnaire was developed and distributed to former and prospective program participants before becoming an integral component of the program itself. (Distribution of questionnaire - Appendix 1)

You will notice that, after the general information section, the linguistic background and linguistic self-evaluation sections provide us with an idea of the participant's language background before going on into the specifics of their linguistic work situation and goals. In the developmental stage, we were particularly interested in the linguistic goals section. The compilation of results added to our own on-site observations, enabled us to state terminal and intermediate objectives and then select these on the basis of two sixty-hour sessions.

2. Formulation and Selection of Objectives

In his book entitled: "Preparing Instructional Objectives" (1962), Mager, distinguishes what the learner should be able to do at the end of the course or program; to which extent and in which circumstances he should be able to do so.

We needed to establish general and specific objectives to the 60-hour programs. We then decided to adopt the following overall objectives for the real beginner nursing program. In aural comprehension, we decided that at the end of a 60-hour course, the learner should be able to understand a series of simple sentences spoken at slower than normal speed and common basic professional lexis. Rapid delivery or background noise would hinder comprehension of some elements. Telephone conversations would be a problem. Vocabulary would be limited to words and idioms in daily general use with standard pronunciation.

In oral expression, the learner was to be able to speak in a series of simple to complex sentences. We expected his/her accent to be marked, his/her vocabulary limited to lexis commonly used in his/her own field. Delivery was to be slower than normal and interference from the mother tongue was to remain predominant. You may have recognized that these objectives were adapted from the Foreign Service Institute second language proficiency levels. We therefore expected our participants to be able to minimally communicate orally with the patient and his/her family. Because the Hospital's working language is English, we have not deemed it necessary to emphasize written expression and comprehension skills. We were supported in this decision by the results of our first questionnaire enquiry. We therefore concentrated on vocabulary, aural comprehension, grammar and fluency.

As far as specific intermediate objectives are concerned, our units enable the nurses to: identify themselves (they should be able to introduce themselves, ask a patient or parent's identity, introduce a third person), welcome a patient into a ward, take a patient's family history, inquire on the patient's condition, explain common tests and procedures, give basic commands to a patient, give information on the condition of a patient, explain discharge procedures. We follow, in this respect, Jupp and Hodlin's footsteps who recommend the establishment of realistic objectives which coincide with the industry's and employees' needs.

3. Selection and Organization of Content

The content selection phase follows the selection of objectives. Course content is based on the working situations learners have to face daily. Making sure that content meets language needs guarantees participants' satisfaction. We did not find any profound theoretical pronouncement in second language teaching literature. As a matter of fact, we decided on content selection and organization on the basis of the needs analysis questionnaire aforementioned.

Content selection for us always includes an introduction to French pronunciation. We consider it necessary to teach people how to recognize the French sounds both isolated and in a linguistic context. Then we have to decide on the pertinent lexis and grammar items needed to achieve our objectives.

Lexis-wise, we present the vocabulary of the body parts, the patient's surroundings (bedroom, bathroom, personal things and accessories), the name of tests, frequently used medical instruments. The participant learns to recognize high-frequency colloquialisms but is only taught one standard acception of a given term or idiom. We are not referring here to some sort of technical jargon. We are only concerned with the vocabulary used between the nurse and the patient. It cannot be highly specialized as the nurse has to be sure the patient understands what is being explained to him/her. On the other hand, the patient himself only describes his health problems in lay terminology and common phrases which the health professional must understand.

As for grammar, we select the items needed to carry out the previously identified language functions. Thus, the interrogative form will be introduced earlier than in most programs, so will the past and future tenses as one is needed to take the patient's family history, the other to explain what will happen to the patient during his hospital stay. It is then obvious that we do not follow a linear progression. Ours is a cyclical process whereby we introduce the useful items for a particular situation without insisting on all the rules of use and structural occurrences. The participant acquires a certain feel for use of that specific item, sees it again in another unit and studies it more in-depth later on in the program. The order of presentation varies according to the health care profession concerned. One has therefore to be highly flexible. We aim at an approach where structural phase, communicative phase and specialized phase are presented. In fact, once useful contexts are established, we identify the concepts or notions a nurse will have to use. Then, we select the grammatical, lexical and phonological items normally used to express such.

4. Selection and Organization of Learning Activities

The teacher is no longer the centre of the class. Learning activities have to involve the learner a lot more than in the past. They have to call for a greater participation on the part of the student. A 60-hour program broken down into independent units, will usually be composed of work-related, realistically taped dialogues between a nurse and patient or parent. The participants, who know their tasks well, have to be able to transpose them in their second language. They therefore often suggest what is needed and how they would like it done.

To develop comprehension, global and detailed comprehension exercises are devised. You can either find multiple choice, verification, cloze test. The teacher always explains the vocabulary in context. Role plays and simulations are a big part of the in-class learning process.

Grammatical exercises are also presented in context. We therefore do not rely solely on drills but tend to explain a tense structure and present real-life tense occurrences to get the participant acquainted with language use.

Analyzing the various components of an exchange is also a frequent occurrence especially when paediatric nurses have to interact with young patients and their parents.

Error is tolerated so that a participant will be able to get to the end of his/her presentation or part before the instructor starts correcting his/her speech. Even then, the teacher can choose to be selective and only correct the most blatant mistakes which might hinder communication. Our hope is to avoid inhibiting the participant and to help him/her acquire confidence in his/her second language communicative skills. The participant can also use his/her mother tongue (we assume it is English) in certain types of activities, in the summing up of a situation for instance. The teacher too uses the student's native language if he/she sees an advantage in doing so (clarity of explanations).

Class management does not revolve around a manual to be used page after page. A teacher may wish to draw from other pertinent materials. A greater emphasis is laid on authentic documents even at the initial learning stages. An admission sheet, a medico-social history form will be used as teaching support to help with the various questions a nurse has to ask of a patient or his/her family. The material we use is always easily adaptable and easy to revise.

For our nursing program, we have provided the teacher with a presentation guide and cassettes. The participants use a student's handbook in which he/she finds various types of exercises and grammatical explanations written out in English so a student who had to miss a class can try and make up for his/her absence, at least in part.

5. Evaluation

We are considering here two kinds of evaluations: student's evaluation by the teacher and course evaluation by the students.

5.1 Student's Evaluation

Regular review is mandatory. The teachers are strongly encouraged to provide their students with review exercises and units whereby the students can check on their degree of assimilation. Individual attention is also recommended. The instructor should pinpoint a student's weaknesses and help him/her along the way inasmuch as the participant is willing to commit the necessary time and energy to overcome hurdles. A progress report is provided to each individual at the end of a session to enable him/her to have a clear idea of his/her strengths. Recommendations for future training are also included thereon.

Overall evaluation of the student is conducted by the Program Coordinator who meets with each individual to assess his/her present skills in the areas of aural comprehension and oral expression. A three-part test is composed of a series of graded general questions on the individual, then a comprehension exercise checks on the level of understanding the testee has of his/her second language in a working situation. Last, a simulation provides the testee with the opportunity of explaining a procedure or a treatment to the examiner-patient in front of him/her.

Some nursing departments allow the evaluation to take place directly on-site provided the parent and patient's consent have been obtained. This provides the Program Coordinator with a real-life evaluation where all the true-to-life ingredients are together. A negative side-effect, however, is the degree of nervousness the student manifests in such an environment.

5.2 Course Evaluation

On the other hand, the course itself is regularly evaluated by the participants. An evaluation survey is distributed three weeks after course start-up (15 hours) to verify the participant's level of satisfaction with class content and management. An Advisory Group on French Language Training composed of one delegate per class meets mid-session (after 30 hours) with the Program Coordinator to discuss problems that may arise. Finally, a questionnaire, which adheres to the various developmental stages of the program is given out at the end of each session. (Distribution of questionnaire - Appendix 2). Its compilation enables the Coordinator to bring any recommended changes in program content or class management.

CONCLUSION

We have been speaking here of a 60-hour nursing program for real beginners, what you might term a survival level of proficiency. Bear in mind that our only purpose is to enable the participant to understand and produce acceptable statements from a linguistic point of view, but also to enable him/her to understand and produce adequate statements given his/her psychological, sociological and cultural situations.

Our participants' level of attendance which averages 90% and degree of satisfaction have encouraged us to continue in the same vein. We have therefore devised a second 60-hour program to further our health care professionals' level of proficiency. We could not agree more with Jupp and Hodlin when they say: "When a language course is designed for an industrial situation or any other specialized purpose, the main aim must be for the students to use the new language effectively outside the classroom". In an article written in 1981, Chambers and McDonough state, for an ESP course: "ESP should be concerned with teaching a programme based on some kind of fairly rigorous analysis of both the purpose for which the language is being used and the language itself". We believe it to be so for French-as-a-second-language training programs as well.

Whether we teach French or English as a second language, I believe the fundamental principles of the design process to be similar. The theory remains valid regardless of the profession taught. Language needs analysis should be considered; the formulation and selection of objectives will differ from one profession to the next though their principle remains the same; so will the selection and organization of content and learning activities.

Evaluation has to take into account the participant, the teacher and the course itself. Response to our experience at curriculum design has been most positive. A New Brunswick hospital has bought our program and the Ontario Ministry of Health awarded us the contract for French-as-a-second-language teaching in designated hospitals throughout the Province. We are now looking forward to expanding our services and feel confident that our learner-centered programs will enable us to efficiently help our participants towards proficiency in their second language.

APPENDIX 1

Appendix 1
NURSES

NEEDS ANALYSIS QUESTIONNAIRE

NAME: ______________________ (family name) ______________________ (first name) TEL.-RES ________

DEPARTMENT: ______________________ -HOSP ________

AGE RANGE: ☐ 15-25 ☐ 25-35 ☐ 35-45 ☐ 45-60 ☐ 60+

LINGUISTIC BACKGROUND

PLACE OF BIRTH: ______________________ (city or town) ______________________ (province or country)

GREW UP IN: ______________________ (city or town) AREA: ____________ NO YEARS: ____

FRENCH SPEAKING AREA ☐ YES ☐ NO

LANGUAGE(S) SPOKEN:	age 0 to 10	age 10 to 18
AT HOME:		
IN SCHOOL:		

French courses previously taken, if any: ______________________

Other previous contacts with the French language: ______________________

LINGUISTIC SELF-EVALUATION

CODE:
RB - Real beginner (No knowledge of language)
B - Beginner (Passive knowledge of language. Can use at least 100 words)
F - Functional (Able to get by in routine situations)
FL - Fluent

LANGUAGE	SPEAKING	LISTENING	READING	WRITING
- ENGLISH				
- FRENCH				
(other) -				
-				
-				

LINGUISTIC WORK SITUATION

	very often	often	some times	rarely	never
At work, you speak French:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- face to face:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- on the phone:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- with patients:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
- with parents:	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

NEEDS ANALYSIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Among the following abilities, ✓ priority for you:

	Most important	Very important	Important	Not so important
Conversation, oral expression	☐	☐	☐	☐
Aural comprehension	☐	☐	☐	☐
Reading	☐	☐	☐	☐
Writing	☐	☐	☐	☐

LINGUISTIC GOALS

At the end of the course, would you like to be able to

		YES	NO	N/A
- read in French?	- forms	☐	☐	☐
	- letters	☐	☐	☐
	- progress reports	☐	☐	☐
- write in French?	- notes	☐	☐	☐
	- memos	☐	☐	☐
	- letters	☐	☐	☐
	- reports	☐	☐	☐

Generally speaking, in oral expression (conversation), what would you like to be able to do at the end of this course?

Generally speaking, in aural comprehension, what would you like to be able to do at the end of this course?

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NEEDS ANALYSIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Please indicate the order of importance of the situations in which you would like to be able to understand and use French: (1 being most important, 10 being least important. Each number must be used only once.)

1. ____
2. ____
3. ____
4. ____
5. ____
6. ____
7. ____
8. ____
9. ____
10. ____

In the course of daily activities (outside the Hospital), do you use French? (i.e. family, social events, etc.) Explain briefly.

APPENDIX 2

FRANCAIS LANGUE SECONDE - QUESTIONNAIRE D'EVALUATION DU COURS

PROFESSEUR: ____________________ HOPITAL: ____________________
COURS: ____________________ SERVICE: ____________________
LIEU: ____________________ LIEU DE TRAVAIL: ____________________

Veuillez cocher (✓) la case appropriée.

	EN DESACCORD	D'ACCORD	TOUT A FAIT D'ACCORD
I. TESTING INITIAL			
1. Les objectifs du test de classement m'ont été clairement expliqués.			
2. La durée du test de classement était appropriée.			
3. Les directives concernant le test ont été clairement expliquées.			
4. J'ai été placé(e) dans un niveau approprié.			
II. DIAGNOSTIC DES BESOINS			
5. L'analyse de besoins langagiers effectuée (questionnaire) était pertinente.			
6. Le programme a été adapté aux besoins langagiers identifiés.			
III. OBJECTIFS			
7. J'ai pris part à la formulation de mes objectifs langagiers.			
8. Les objectifs du cours ont été clairement communiqués au début du cours.			
9. Ces objectifs ont été atteints.			
IV. CONTENU DU COURS			
10. Le contenu du cours se rapporte au champ de travail.			
11. L'accent placé sur le contenu hospitalier est suffisant.			
12. Je peux utiliser mes nouvelles connaissances au travail.			
13. Les cours sont bien structurés.			
14. L'accent est mis sur la communication plutôt que sur la grammaire.			

FRENCH LANGUAGE TRAINING - COURSE EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

TEACHER: ____________________ HOSPITAL: ____________________
COURSE: ____________________ DEPARTMENT: ____________________
HELD IN: ____________________ PLACE OF EMPLOYMENT: ____________________

Please rate (✓) the following items:

		DISAGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
I.	**INITIAL TESTING**			
1.	The objectives of the placement test were clearly explained to me.			
2.	The duration of the placement test was appropriate.			
3.	The directions regarding test completion were clearly explained.			
4.	I have been placed in an appropriate level of training.			
II.	**DIAGNOSTIC OF NEEDS**			
5.	The language needs analysis (questionnaire) was relevant.			
6.	The programme was adapted to meet identified language needs.			
III.	**OBJECTIVE SETTING**			
7.	I participated in setting my language training objectives.			
8.	Course objectives were clearly communicated when the course started.			
9.	I feel these objectives were reached.			
IV.	**PROGRAMME CONTENT**			
10.	The content of the classes is occupationally-related.			
11.	The emphasis on hospital content is sufficient.			
12.	I can apply newly-acquired skills on the job.			
13.	Classes are well structured.			
14.	The emphasis is on communication rather than grammar.			

FRANCAIS LANGUE SECONDE - QUESTIONNAIRE D'EVALUATION DU COURS

	EN DESACCORD	D'ACCORD	TOUT A FAIT D'ACCORD
V. SELECTION DES ACTIVITES D'APPRENTISSAGE			
15. Le matériel d'apprentissage est approprié au milieu hospitalier.			
16. On me donne l'occasion d'apprendre le français local.			
VI. ORGANISATION DES ACTIVITES D'APPRENTISSAGE			
17. La durée de chaque activité d'apprentissage est adéquate.			
18. J'aurais préféré un plus grand nombre d'activités orientées vers la communication (jeux de rôle, simulations, débats, conversations spontanées).			
19. Le professeur utilise diverses approches dans son enseignement.			
VII. MESURE DU PROGRES			
20. Je peux mesurer mes progrès dans ce cours (par les commentaires du professeur et les rapports de progrès).			
21. Les méthodes d'évaluation (exercices de révision, questionnaires) conviennent bien à la matière.			
VIII. LE PROFESSEUR			
22. Le professeur est toujours à l'heure.			
23. Le professeur est toujours bien préparé.			
24. Le professeur possède une bonne connaissance du fonctionnement d'un hôpital.			
25. Le professeur connaît bien son sujet.			
26. Le professeur peut normalement répondre à mes questions.			
27. Le professeur connaît la terminologie hospitalière.			
28. Le professeur connaît les expressions locales que les patients et leur famille utilisent.			
29. Le professeur sait motiver les apprenants.			
30. Le professeur sait adapter le rythme d'apprentissage à celui de ses apprenants.			

FRENCH LANGUAGE TRAINING - COURSE EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

	DISAGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
V. SELECTION OF LEARNING ACTIVITIES			
15. The learning material is appropriate for hospital setting.			
16. Opportunities are provided for learning local French.			
VI. ORGANIZATION OF LEARNING ACTIVITIES			
17. The time spent on each learning activity is adequate.			
18. I would have preferred more communication-oriented activities (role plays, simulations, debates, informal conversations).			
19. A variety of learning approaches are used.			
VII. MEASURE OF PROGRESS			
20. I can measure my progress in this course (through comments on the part of the teacher and progress reports).			
21. The evaluation methods (review exercises, questionnaires) are appropriate for the material taught.			
VIII. THE TEACHER			
22. The teacher is always on time for classes.			
23. The teacher is always well prepared.			
24. The teacher has a good knowledge of the functioning of a hospital.			
25. The teacher has a good grasp of the subject he/she teaches.			
26. The teacher can usually answer my questions.			
27. The teacher is familiar with hospital terminology.			
28. The teacher is familiar with the local expressions used by patients and their families.			
29. The teacher can motivate students.			
30. The teacher can adjust the rate of learning to meet student preferences.			

FRANCAIS LANGUE SECONDE - QUESTIONNAIRE D'EVALUATION DU COURS

IX. ADMINISTRATION	OUI	NON
31. Le nombre d'apprenants dans ma classe est approprié.		
32. Les apprenants de ma classe partagent des besoins langagiers en langue seconde semblables à mes besoins professionnels.		
33. Les cours devraient regrouper les professionnels qui ont les mêmes besoins langagiers.		

X. EVALUATION GLOBALE	OUI	NON
34. Ce cours a amélioré ma connaissance de la langue française.		
35. J'ai plus de confiance maintenant pour utiliser le français avec mes patients.		
36. Ce cours a accru mon intérêt envers l'apprentissage du français.		
37. Je suis globalement satisfait(e) des habiletés acquises.		
38. J'ai déjà suivi d'autres cours de français.		
39. Je trouve que ce cours est supérieur à ceux que j'ai suivis précédemment.		
40. J'aimerais continuer ce type de cours lors de la prochaine session.		

AUTRE:

____

____

POINTS FORTS:

____

____

POINTS FAIBLES:

____

____

SUGGESTIONS:

____

____

Merci de votre coopération!

Révisé en mars 1987

IX. ADMINISTRATION		YES	NO
31.	The number of students in my class is appropriate.		
32.	Students in my class share similar occupationally-related second language training needs.		
33.	Classes should regroup professionals from similar occupational needs.		

X. OVERALL EVALUATION		YES	NO
34.	This course has improved my knowledge of the French language.		
35.	I feel more confident now about using French with patients.		
36.	This course has increased my interest in learning French.		
37.	I am generally satisfied with the skills acquired in this course.		
38.	I have attended other French language training programmes.		
39.	I feel this course is superior to others I have taken.		
40.	I would like to continue with this type of course during the next session.		

OTHER: ______________________________

____

____

STRONG POINTS: ______________________________

____

WEAK POINTS: ______________________________

____

____

SUGGESTIONS: ______________________________

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Thank you for your cooperation!

Revised March 1987

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A NEW CONCURRENT MASTER'S PROGRAM IN FRENCH STUDIES AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AT PENN STATE

by

Richard L. Frautschi
Department of French
The Pennsylvania State University
University Park, PA 16802

Richard L. Frautschi
Department of French
The Pennsylvania State University
University Park, PA 16802

A New Concurrent Master's Program in French Studies and Public Administration at Penn State

It is a truism that some forty years ago the Fulbright Fellowship program inaugurated a new spirit of internationalism between American academics and their counterparts abroad. Yet, in 1979 President Carter's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies described the "scandalous" lack of expertise in matters of multi-lingual and multi-cultural competence in the United States, a deficiency of serious economic and political import. Among its findings the Commission noted the large number of vacant positions within the Federal Government with job descriptions requiring second language and second culture competency.

More recently, in the New York Times of 13 January 1987 Fred Hechinger, a member of the Carter Commission, reported a State Department paper confirming a shortage of foreign service officers who "speak languages vital to foreign policy." Almost a decade following the publication of the two volume report by the President's Commission, not to mention the Iran crisis, it is surprising that the Federal Government has yet to embark on a decisive effort to eliminate monolingualism and monoculturalism within the ranks of those with international responsibilities. The dilemma of "cultural inertia" [1] is compounded by state governments which face a continuing tide of immigrants, travelers, and business representatives from East and West, frequently without line and staff personnel who include multi-language and multi-cultural competencies in their job descriptions.

In view of the numerous federal and, to a lesser degree, state vacancies requiring an advanced knowledge of a foreign language and culture, the Department of French and the Institute of Public Administration at Penn State initiated consultations, starting in 1985, addressing the feasibility of concurrent degrees in French Studies and in Public Administration. Let me point out that at Penn State the Institute of Public Administration offers a Master's degree designed to train civil servants here and abroad. Every year a number of international civil servants, designated as Humphrey Fellows, join American students in an eighteen month Master's program. As such, the MPA degree offers a pragmatic program of study, as I shall show presently, which differs markedly from the theoretical or ideological orientation of curricula in Political Science.

In our consultations, two objectives were paramount: advanced competency in French language and culture; inclusion of a French "connection" into existing MPA requirements. In designing the dual degree program of study, my colleagues were guided by models used in the concurrent degree programs in French and Business Administration offered at Penn State since 1980. (Concurrent Master's degrees are offered in French Studies and the MBA curriculum or in French and a business specialty such as Finance, Logistics, or Marketing in an MS mode.)

After approval by the faculties of both units, we presented the concurrent MA degree curricula in French and in Public Administration to the Graduate School. We must have made a persuasive case for the proposal sailed by Graduate School Committees and Deans virtually without change right on to final approval by the President and the Board of Trustees.

In our rationale we stressed the need for civil service employees, both federal and state, with advanced skills in government administration and also in a major foreign language and world culture. As in our French/Business graduate programs, applicants must meet entrance requirements for each: viz. an undergraduate major in French, or *equivalent*, plus at least one or two undergraduate courses in Political Science, Economics, and quantification. Graduates are expected to begin careers in public administration, whether state or federal, with an international emphasis. For example, state or federal agencies with a mission to develop import-export relationships.

Credit requirements for the concurrent degrees total sixty-six: twenty-seven credits in French; thirty-nine credits in Public Administration. Because the two degrees are designated as *concurrent* or dual degrees, one degree cannot be completed without presenting all requirements for the second. Thus, the Graduate School considers six credits from each curriculum as related electives in the other. Most graduate students, especially Teaching Assistants, take three or at most four courses per semester, a pace which extends the average length of study for the program to three years/six semesters. However, summer courses can accelerate completion time. Indeed, full-time or scholarship students may complete requirements in two calendar years, including summer study.

For the French Studies component students must take six credits of advanced language, choosing among Composition, Stylistics, and Business French. They must also take twelve credits of French Culture, choosing courses on Contemporary France, Francophone Culture, History of French Civilization, and French-Canadian Language and Culture.

For the Public Administration component candidates must take twenty credits of core subjects: Doctrine and Practice, Theory, Government Personnel Management, Budgeting, Systems Management, Analysis and Measurement, Public Management Information Systems, Government Financial Management and Accounting, and ineluctably, Computer Applications. As in French, one elective is required.

A summary of courses available for each degree is provided in Table I. Let me point out that at Penn State courses numbered 500-600 are reserved for graduate students.

The end of program paper consists of either a group or individual paper. Concurrent degree candidates present a bilingual version of the paper. The production, equivalent to a Master's thesis, must be approved by faculty readers in both units.

Since the concurrent program has been in operation only since Fall 1986, the first degree candidates are now completing requirements. Let me describe each of them briefly.

The first graduate student to enroll, a Hispanic-American, was originally interested in our French/Business program. However, when she learned of the recently approved French/MPA track, she shifted immediately, because of a need for multi-lingual civil servants in her native Puerto Rico. We have recommended her for a training workshop sponsored by the United Nations in Geneva next July.

The second candidate came to the French Department as a Master's candidate from a mid-western denominational college. The possibility of combining her interest in French Studies with government service appealed to her more than a career in teaching. When she graduates this summer she will seek employment in Washington.

The third candidate, a student from Guangzhou Foreign Language Institute of the People's Republic of China, came to Penn State this year as a doctoral candidate in French. (Mainland China is encouraging doctoral training abroad with a view to developing autonomous degree programs at the same level.) Last December the Chinese student came to me with a request to transfer to the French/Business program, saying that such expertise would be as valuable in his country as a doctorate in French.

I suggested that he investigate the French/MPA program. He returned to my office a few days later saying that administrative training would be even more valuable. I agreed to the transfer on the condition that his Institute give approval. Authorization from China arrived a few days ago.

Since the French/MPA program at Penn State is only in its second year of operation, with the first graduate anticipated this summer, it is not possible to report on placement histories at this time. However, my colleagues and I feel that we have developed a graduate curriculum which is responsive to a societal need here and abroad. To our knowledge there are no other L2/MPA programs in North America. While student response has been modest (as yet, we have not advertised nationally), in the first semesters of operation, transfers from other programs feel confident that they have selected a curriculum which presupposes a satisfying career in public service.

Finally, as was the case in our undergraduate and graduate French/Business curricula, we have been able to start the new degree program in French and Public Administration with no additions to existing courses. In a short term perspective this has meant that we could simply "repackage" existing course offerings, as old wine in a new bottle, placing greater emphasis in language and culture, than we do in our conventional Master's degree which still retains a strong literature component. In a long term perspective, however, the impact on department offerings and on faculty recruiting has resulted in the appointment of more full-time specialists in language, culture, and pedagogy, a phenomenon which in turn has precipitated new doctoral "concentrations" in these nontraditional specialties. As American L2 departments turn increasingly to broad-based, cross-cultural curricula, including Business and Public Administration, the need to train doctoral students in nonliterary specialties increases.

In the Department of French at Penn State, for example, we have identified four doctoral concentrations in Civilization, Linguistics, Literature, and Pedagogy. And we have recruited francophone faculty with advanced training in Anthropology, Computation, Cultural History, and Pedagogy.

In brief, as foreign language departments develop interdisciplinary curricula in business, social studies, and now public administration, they must face the responsibility of preparing foreign language teachers who are familiar with the related subject areas. The challenge of preparing doctoral students in foreign languages who are at once humanists and vocationalists poses a new problem in higher education. But that is a subject for another paper.

Notes

[1] For an incisive summary of the cultural complacency fostered by the rise of English as a "lingua franca," see Gerald Gillespie, "American Internationalism in the year 2000," ADFL Bulletin, 18.3 (1987), p. 41.

TABLE I

Concurrent Degree Programs:
MA in French Studies/Master of Public Administration
The Pennsylvania State University

Requirements

M.A. in French Studies

Language: 2 courses (6 credits)

Fr 507	Composition (3) OR
Fr 510	Adv. Stylistics (3)
Fr 508A	Fr. Bus. Comm. (3)

Culture: 4 of 5 courses (12 credits)

Fr 530	Contemporary France (3)
Fr 531	Francophone Culture (3)
597A/B	Analysis of French Civilization (6)
Fr 597B	Fr. Canadian Lang. and culture(3)

Literature:	1 literature course (3 credits)
Electives:	6 credits in French
Total:	27 credits in French, plus 6 credits of Pub A courses), or 33 credits total.
Paper :	in French and in English.

Master of Public Administration

Core Courses: all required (27 credits)

Pub A 569	Doctrine and Practice (2)
Pub A 571	Theory of Pub. A. (3)
Pub A 575	Govt. Personnel Mgmt. (3)
Pub A 576	Govt. Budgeting (3)
Pub A 577	Organization and Systems Management (3)
Pub A 579	Methods of Analysis and Measurement in Pub A (6)
Pub A 581	Public Management Information Systems (3)
Pub A 586	Government Financial Management and Acctg (3)
Pub A 597	Publ Sector Communications(1)

Electives:	6 credits in Pub A
Terminal Option:	Practicum or Internship *(6)
Total:	39 credits in Pub A, plus 6 credits of French courses), or 45 credits total

*For mid-career students (three years or more of administrative experience), the practicum/internship will be waived and a three-credit final paper will be written, thereby reducing electives to 9 credits, for a total of 39 credits for the degree.

Total Program Credits = 66. Because of the sharing of 6 credits from each program (for example, Pub A 577 could count as 3 credits for the MA and 3 credits for the MPA; French 508A could count as 3 credits for the MA and 3 for the MPA, etc.), candidates for the concurrent MA/MPA will meet program requirements through satisfactory completion of 66 graduate credits.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE SIXTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE
ON
LANGUAGES AND COMMUNICATION FOR
WORLD BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

PART VII.

BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL GERMAN

THE AUSTRIAN-AMERICAN TEAMWORK APPROACH TO BUSINESS GERMAN

by

Peter C. Carels
Associate Professor of German
Miami University

The Austrian-American Teamwork Approach to Business German

This presentation will outline for you the arrangement currently in operation at Miami University that brings American and Austrian students together for a few weeks in the summer for an educational and cross-cultural experience. The paper does not try to cover all the possibilities in terms of what kinds of mutually beneficial activities might be entered into within the framework of this arrangement. Time will permit only a brief description of the present situation. It is an arrangement that could be applied to other situations in which a group of students from a particular country is on campus for an extended visit.

The push toward internationalism we have been experiencing at Miami is one that comes at least as much from the students as from enlightened faculty. They tend to be more traveled and more aware of the world around them than were their predecessors. This can be gauged by the number of enrollments in international studies, for example, or the number opting for the international business concentration. Language majors are on the increase as well. The business school has begun to respond by offering advanced summer seminars abroad for the first time. These are in great demand. The business faculty and students are becoming aware of the usefulness of a foreign language, particularly the kind that will increase their ability to function in the business world. A larger number of non-business majors are taking general business courses, as has been predicted (and encouraged) by language educators since back in the 70s. Some, in order to accomplish all their educational goals, have attended summer school. This is one of the factors that led to the creation of the teamwork project to be described here, though first it will be necessary to indicate briefly in what capacity the Austrians came to be at Miami.

Miami University has served as host to over 330 Austrian students in the thirteen years since its first such program brought thirteen participants over in 1974. Most have been students in their first several semesters, but others were pursuing advanced degrees and some had already entered upon a career. Their shared goals in coming to our Southwest Ohio campus have always been the desire to practice English in an academic setting where they can extend their knowledge in their chosen fields, to expand their horizons in other academic areas, and to experience first-hand America and its people.

The fact that they show a slight preference for coursework in business administration has two explanations: on the one hand, the principal recruiting activity for the program has for several years taken place at the Vienna School of Business and World Trade (Wirtschaftsuniversitaet); and on the other, Miami University has a great deal to offer in business, most particularly in the areas of marketing and management. The Austrians also enjoy classwork in English literature, technical and business writing, foreign languages, history, political science, economics, and environmental studies, as well as sailing, golf, and tennis offered by the department of physical education. Indeed, sports and leisure activities afford them a ready access to American students, and most find they have made several friends before leaving campus.

The students are enrolled as guest auditors in regularly scheduled classes during a six-week term that keeps up to 2,000 of our regular students on the main campus from early July to mid-August. The Austrians also take field trips and pleasure outings together, escorted by various faculty, staff, and student volunteers, and they attend a few specially arranged guest lectures on American topics.

The university derives a number of intangible benefits from this arrangement, in the areas of internationalization of the student body, international good-will, and recruitment of future full-time students from abroad. In addition, the Austrian students participate in a German language instruction project. They volunteer to be conversation partners to our students of German enrolled during that same summer term. They also volunteer to be teamed with American roommates in the residence hall to which most Miami summer students are assigned. Thus Miami has been able to tap an obvious but underutilized source of stimulating input. The results appear to have been successful to date, with healthy summer language enrollments where there had been no course offered at all before.

Because the course being offered is a second-semester intermediate German course, and because the Austrians often bring with them language learning experience in both business German and business English, it was decided to make the course one that focuses on business German. The text used is Merrifield's Deutsche Wirtschaftssprache fuer Amerikaner. The conversation topics assigned are often related to the composition exercises provided in the text, though sometimes with adjustments to compensate for the exclusive emphasis the book places on the Federal Republic of Germany.

The Austrians are provided with a list of the topics in advance of their departure for the United States, so that they can prepare themselves mentally for these conversations, which have, at the outset, at least, the nature of an interview. Both the Austrians and Americans are given a list of topics longer than is required for the course, so that it becomes an immediate matter of discussion between them which ones the American is most eager to explore and which ones the Austrian feels most comfortable with: each pair of partners comes up with its selection. The meetings are scheduled between the participants, usually one per week, for a minimum of five. They may not run shorter than 30 minutes. Many run much longer, the average being about an hour. Among the topics often examined are "Austria and the European Community," "The Economic Importance of X (Hometown or other chosen town or city)," "Concerns About the Environment," "Austria's Forests," "American and Austrian Television Compared," and "Austrian Observations on American Behavior." The Austrian students are encouraged to bring a few short relevant clippings, brochures and pamphlets with them to share with their interlocutors. This also helps them focus on the topics prior to their departure from Europe.

The Austrian students receive a list of the participating Americans with information about their hobbies, study interests, and favorite leisure pursuits, and from this they make their selection of conversation partners. They also discuss together at the outset a few of the topics about which some of them feel less than secure, and this experience turns out to have the function of cementing relationships among members of the visiting group earlier than would otherwise be the case. It is necessary to reassure the participants that they need not be experts on any of the topics. The educated layperson's familiarity with any of them is quite sufficient.

Even after a short period of five or six weeks, the American students are pleased at how much German they have been exposed to and how greatly they have improved in their ability to follow spoken German. (The participants are sworn to refrain from using English during the interviews except for offering occasional translations of individual key words.) It is gratifying to see how comfortable most of the students become with the assignment and how much real exchange of information and opinion goes on. In other words, there is a real attempt at communication here, so the motivation for performing in the language is at an unusually high level. For their part, the Austrians are eager to participate in this activity, and they give it a high rating in their end-of-session evaluation. The instructor does need to keep a close watch on the written summaries the American students turn in on each of the interviews, however, because of the tendency some of the Austrians show to take pity on their struggling partners and offer them substantial aid at this juncture. A brief word to the overly helpful students and a reminder to the American participants can nip this in the bud.

Other campuses that host students from abroad in sufficient numbers can reap similar benefits from such an arrangement, as long as there can be coordination of efforts at both the planning and execution stages, and provided there is interest and enthusiasm on both sides. Of great encouragement at Miami University is the indication from business faculty that many (estimated at 90%) of the summer seminar abroad participants become keenly aware of their lack of communication skill in another language. As that word spreads, there should be an increased interest in prior language preparation. Since in the summer of 1988 there will be such a seminar going to Vienna, it is hoped that some of the contacts students have made here will prove beneficial over there.

Peter E. Carels
Associate Professor of German

Miami University

TEACHING ABOUT THE INCOME STATEMENT AND BALANCE SHEET IN A BEGINNING BUSINESS GERMAN COURSE

by

Uwe Rudolf, CPA
Luther College
Decorah, Iowa 52101

Uwe Rudolf, CPA
Luther College
Decorah, Iowa 52101
Tel: (319) 382-5804

Teaching About the Income Statement and Balance Sheet in a Beginning Business German Course

Uwe Rudolf, CPA

Accounting is often referred to as "the language of business," and every student of business is required to take at least an introductory accounting course. Thus it seemed reasonable to assume that a course on "business German" would include some discussion of accounting terminology and the object of this paper, as initially conceived, was to examine the treatment of accounting in current Business German textbooks. Surprisingly, I found that most texts failed to mention any accounting terminology. Even a recent arrival on the Business German textbook scene, the otherwise quite lively and well-conceived Deutsche Wirtschaftssprache für Amerikaner by Doris Merrifield, does not deal with accounting beyond a few references to debiting accounts and the need for a firm to be profitable (see below). In fact, Franz Bäumchen's Der Kaufmann with its four-paragraph treatment of "Der Monatschluss," is the most detailed discussion of accounting to be found.[1]

In contrast, many Business French textbooks, for example, include a whole chapter devoted to "la comptabilité," although it must be added that, here too sometimes, financial statements might be reproduced with little explanation.[2]

Students enrolled in Business German courses tend to fall into two groups: those majoring in business with an interest in German who want to internationalize their perspectives, and those who are German majors wanting to add a "practical" component to their studies. Business majors will enjoy translating the concepts already familiar to them in their native language, whereas language majors need to be introduced to the framework for calculating an entity's net worth and gain or loss from its business activity. Both students need to be reminded of the fundamental concept that a business acquires assets in order to engage in a profit-making activity, and that those assets must produce an adequate return for the investors who provided the funds to acquire the assets in the first place. An introduction to the interaction of the balance sheet and the income statement is a useful and important step in the right direction.

The aim of this paper is to provide the German teacher with a lesson plan enabling him or her to present one or two class sessions on accounting limiting the content to a minimal but solid understanding of a "T-account," a simplified balance sheet and income statement, and how they interact. The first task then, is to make the teacher feel at ease in a foreign discipline, the second is to provide a limited selection of the most essential vocabulary, and lastly, to offer a class drill in the form of a game or simulation, permitting the students to prove that they understand the concepts while practicing the language.

It has been my experience that concepts are more readily accepted when presented in a foreign language. There is a "suspension of the rules" mentality that permits the student to accept the unusual or unfamiliar more readily. It should also be borne in mind that a child acquiring language learns much vocabulary without immediately understanding its signification. In a similar fashion, the exposure to the accounting language and its practice in the context of a social game will be a useful experience even when not entirely understood by all students. It will be at least as useful and comprehensible to the undergraduate student as the macro-economics currently presented in most business German textbooks.

In presenting a lesson on accounting to students in a beginning business German course, the following points should be kept firmly in mind:

1) You are addressing a mixed audience. The material being presented is simplified. Students with an accounting background may want to press on to details that are beyond the scope of your introduction and confusing to other students. You must remind them, that they are to concentrate on learning and exercising the German terminology presented.

2) Just because a student has an accounting background, does not mean that he or she is an expert in accounting. (By analogy, how well does a third year undergraduate German major understand German grammar?) Still, you can engage these students by having them help with the drills in German.

3) For those students (and teachers!) whose appetite has been whetted to pursue German accounting terminology further, the texts cited in the bibliography of this paper will be helpful independent reading sources.[3]

With the above points firmly in mind, you should try to get the following key concepts across:

First discuss the nature of assets (Vermögensgegenstände), all those "things" that a company needs to perform its main activity or business. Cite examples such as the land and buildings, the machinery, trucks, office furniture, etc. Try to stay away from abstractions such as intangible assets like copyrights and goodwill, which may confuse or distract some students.

Your students need to understand that a company must use the assets to create more assets--that there is a continual cycle of acquiring funds to buy assets which are sold at a gain (we hope) to get more funds, which again are used to acquire more assets. Like a loaf of bread under the influence of yeast (the business activity), our company grows bigger and bigger. If the business activity is not successful enough (the loaf doesn't grow quickly enough), investors will pull their money out, leaving the company with a shortage of funds. So a key point for the students to understand is that assets must be "turned over" from cash to assets to cash. The quicker this turnover, the more profitable the company. A company can not afford to have assets sitting idly by. Cash must be invested in an account that earns interest, a truck that is sitting idly by not needed by the company should be "liquidated" into cash, which can then be invested either in an interest earning account or in another asset that the company can use to be productive--in otherwords, profitable. To quote from Merriweather:

> "Ein gesundes Unternehmen muss wirschaftlich und rentabel sein. Wirtschaftlichkeit bedeutet das in DM berechnete Verhältnis von Kosten und Leistung. Je grösser die Leistung im Verhältnis zu den Kosten ist, desto wirtschaftlicher ist das

> Unternehmen. Rentabilität zieht das eingesetzte Kapital in Betracht. Wenn das investierte Vermögen nicht mehr Reingewinn einbringt als der Haben-Zins auf einem Spaarkonto, dann rentiert sich das Unternehmen nicht." (page 144)

Having conveyed the importance of utilizing assets well, we should also explain that assets differ in their degree of liquidity. Cash is the most liquid since it can easily be transported and converted into any other asset. A building (that was initially acquired with liquid cash) is not easily transported or sold, is used for a long time by the company and is thus among the least liquid assets.

Now we are ready to talk about accounting for our assets. Assets are listed in the order of liquidity. Whereas the American accounting system lists the most liquid first, the German lists assets in the reverse order. This is the only difference in accounting between the two systems that should concern us at this elementary level.

To make this discussion more concrete, we will use a simple clothing retail business, "Müller Mode," as an example. We will limit the assets of this firm to the following: A store building, a truck for pick-up and delivery, some office furniture and equipment (desks, counters, a cash register, etc), an inventory of clothing that we hope to sell, and cash in the bank. (Normally a company will have some cash on hand, too, but we want to keep this simple). Our example must include one intangible asset:

accounts receivable, the promise of those customers who charged their purchases to pay soon. Since accounts receivable are expected to be collected soon--that is "liquidated" into cash --they are second only to cash in their degree of liquidity.

The businessman has traded one asset (inventory) for another asset (the right to receive cash soon). If, as is normlly the case, the receivable is greater in monetary terms than the asset we gave up, our total assets have grown in monetary terms, which is the main goal of business.

Now let's list our assets:

(AMERICAN)	(GERMAN)
Cash (most liquid)	Building (least liquid)
Accounts Receivable	Truck
Inventory	Furniture & equipment
Furniture & equipment	Inventory
Truck	Accounts Receivable
Building (least liquid)	Cash (most liquid)

This list is further subdivided into long-term (called "fixed assets" that will be used for more than one year) and short-term (called "current assets" which will be consumed in a year or less):

VERMöGEN

(assets)

ANLAGEVERMöGEN (fixed assets)

UMLAUFVERMöGEN (current assets)

In our example:

Gebäude (building) ⌉
Lieferwagen (delivery truck) ANLAGEVERMöGEN
Betriebsausstattung (furnishings) ⌋

Waren (merchandise inventory) ⌉
Forderungen (accounts receivable) UMLAUFVERMöGEN
Bank (cash in bank) ⌋

Now explain that each of these assets is recorded in monetary terms (the total cost, not the quantity) in a T-account (so called because it resembles the letter "T") which looks like this:

ACCOUNT NAME
DEBIT (SOLL) CREDIT (HABEN)

Debits and credits seem to mystify the layperson, but they should ALWAYS be understood to mean nothing more than "left side" and "right side." A debit to an account is an entry on the left side and a credit is an entry on the right.

Let's assume that our customer, Herr Kunde, buys several shirts by charging them. The total bill is DM 60. Thus we debit his account for DM 60:

KUNDENKONTO Nr. 001--Herr Kunde

60.00	

The account is debited (belastet) on the "soll" side because Herr Kunde is supposed to pay (soll bezahlen) DM 60.
Now let's say that Herr Kunde sends a partial payment of DM 30 several days later:

KUNDENKONTO Nr. 001--Herr Kunde

60.00	30.00

Herr Kunde's account is credited (gutgeschrieben) on the "haben" side because that is what Herr Kunde has paid.
This explanation of the origin of the terms "soll" and "haben" is much easier for the students to relate to than the Latin derivations of debit and credit. Again, however, be reminded that this terminology was transferred to other accounts for which the explanation no longer makes sense and that soll (debit) and haben (credit) should be simply remembered as "left" and "right" respectively.

To continue the example, let's assume Herr Kunde comes into the store and buys a suit for DM 500. charging it to his account. His account is then debited for that amount:

KUNDENKONTO Nr. 001--Herr Kunde

60.00	30.00
500.00	

Now let's assume it's the end of the accounting period (say, the end of the month) and our businessman needs to know the balance in all of his accounts. He would balance Herr Kunde's account by drawing a line under the last of the entries and writing the difference between the debit and credit side on that side which had the greater amount (usually the debit side in the case of a customer's account since they normally owe the company some balance--it's seldom the other way around):

KUNDENKONTO Nr. 001--Herr Kunde

60.00	30.00
500.00	
530.00	

Now the account has been "balanced" (saldiert) and can be continued as before. As a final illustration on this topic, let's assume Herr Kunde erroneously transferred DM 600 (instead of the DM 530 owed) to the store's bank account.

This would be credited to his account resulting in the unusual case of a credit balance in an asset (from the store's point of view) account:

KUNDENKONTO Nr. 001--Herr Kunde

60.00	30.00
500.00	
530.00	
	600.00

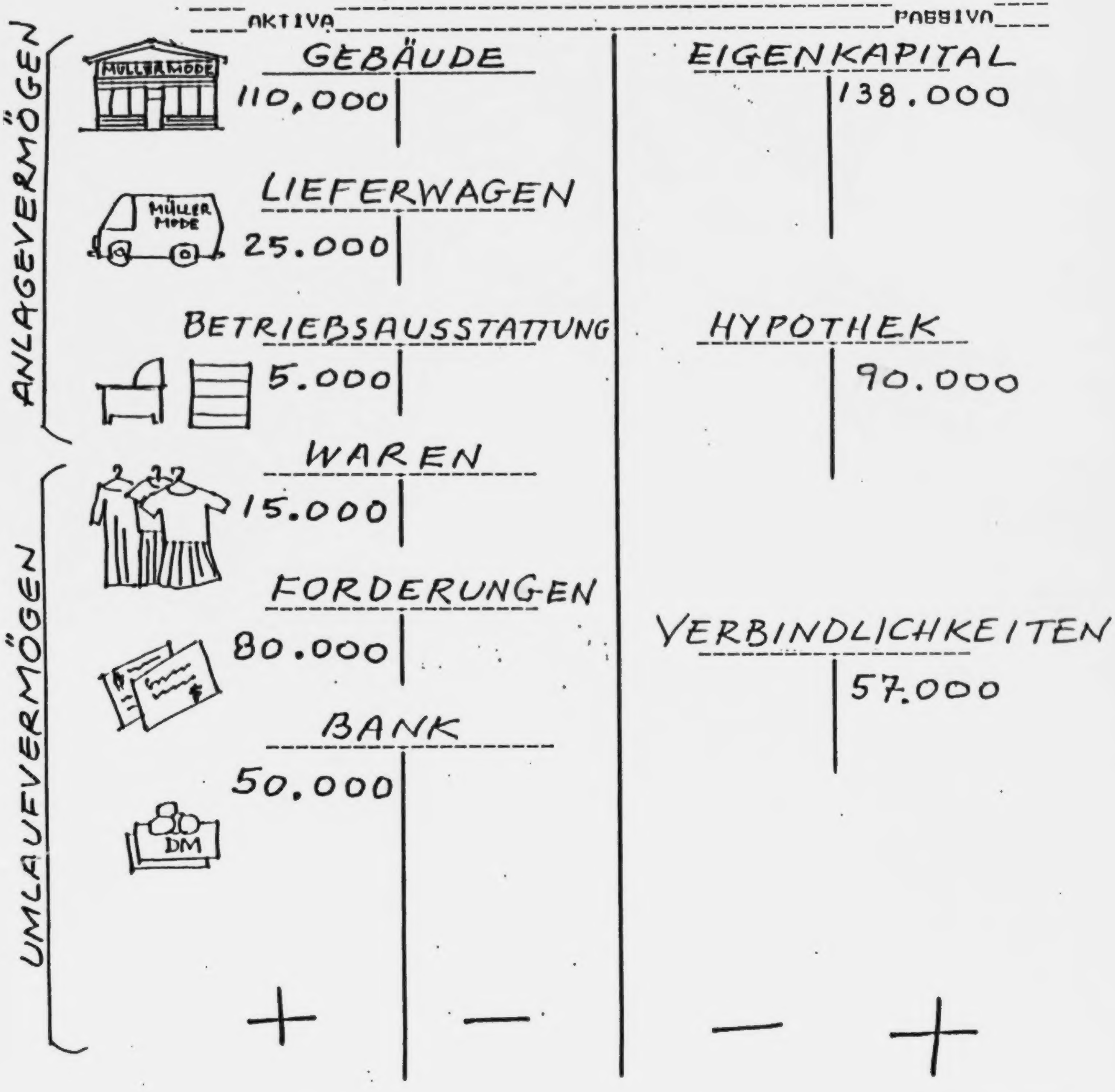
Note that the account has a credit balance of DM 70.00. It is important for the student to understand why this is an asset account. If Herr Kunde had paid cash instead of charging, the company would have had the asset "cash" which is easy for students to conceptualize. In our example later on, we will use only one account entitled "Forderungen" or "accounts receivable" to summarize all of the outstanding customer charges for simplicity's sake.

Once the students feel comfortable with the concept of a T- account, then it's time to introduce the trickiest part, namely the concept that for the total of assets owned by the company there is an equal amount of ownership claims against those assets. Simply put: on the one hand we have all the "things" that the company owns and needs to do its business, on the other hand are all the people who paid for it. This means that we now introduce the BALANCE SHEET, which is a listing of all the assets and liabilities of the

fig. 1

DIE BILANZ

MÜLLER MODE


AKTIVA
PASSIVA
ANLAGEVERMÖGEN
MÜLLER MODE
GEBÄUDE
110,000
LIEFERWAGEN
MÜLLER MODE
25.000
BETRIEBSAUSSTATTUNG
5.000
UMLAUFVERMÖGEN
WAREN
15.000
FORDERUNGEN
80.000
BANK
50.000
DM
+
—
EIGENKAPITAL
138.000
HYPOTHEK
90.000
VERBINDLICHKEITEN
57.000
—
+

SUMME 285.000 | 285.000

ACTIVA = PASSIVA

WAS BESITZT DIE FIRMA? = WER HAT DAS FINANZIERT?

company at a given time (Stichtag). It "balances," that is to say on the left we have assets listed in monetary (DM) cost values and on the right side are the liabilities and owners' equity or share of the company in exactly the same DM amount. The balance sheet balances because the total cost or funds needed to buy the assets owned by the company had to have been provided either by the owners (shareholders in the case of a corporation) or by outside creditors (lenders).

The fundamental equation of the "double-entry" accounting system:

ASSETS = LIABILITIES + OWNERS' EQUITY

or in laypersons' terms,

ASSETS = LOANS + YOUR INVESTMENT or

THINGS OWNED = AMOUNT INVESTED BY OWNERS AND LENDERS

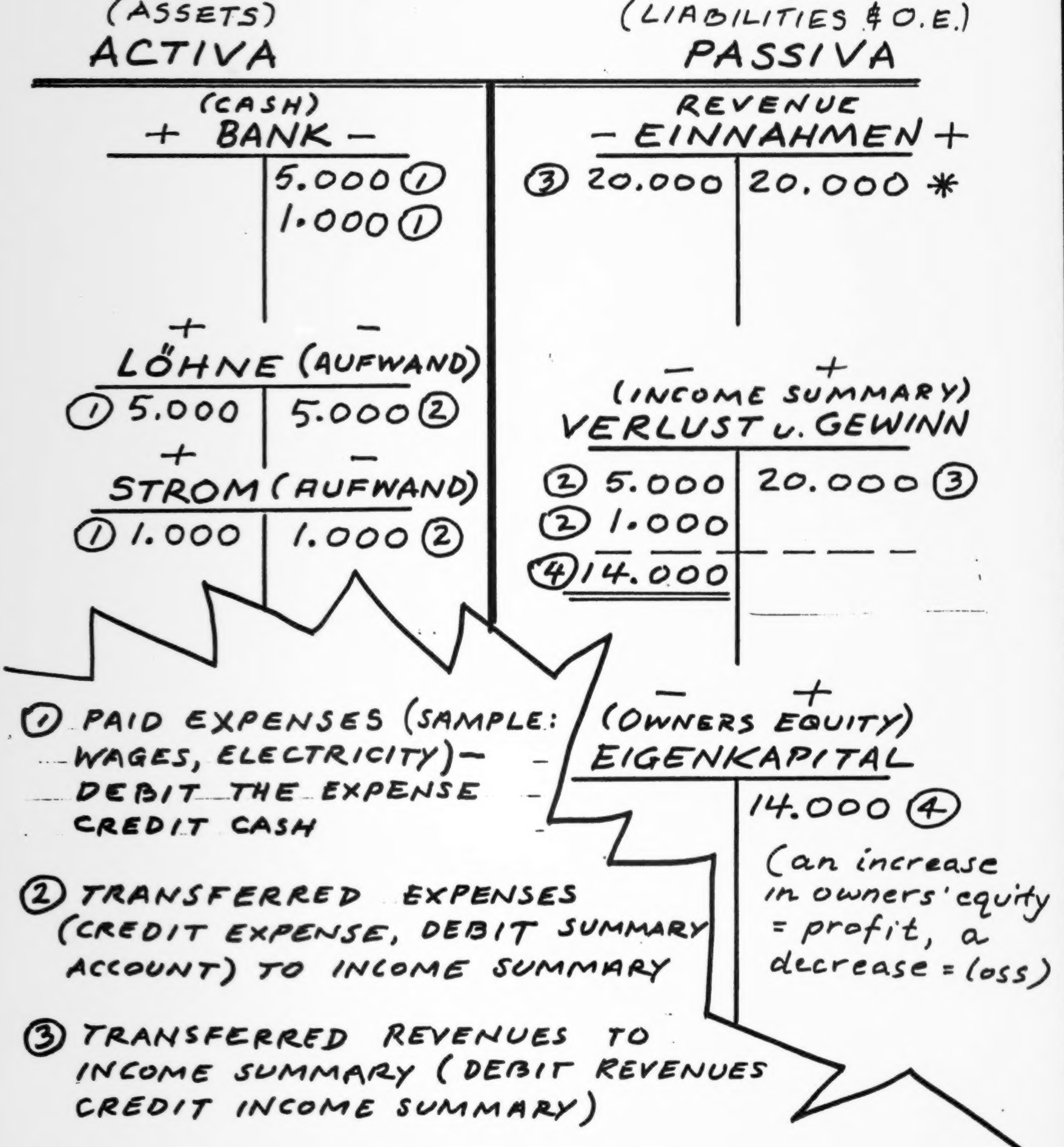
is reflected in the balance sheet format shown in Figure 1.

Now it is extremely important to note that there are T-accounts for both the asset side and the liabilities/owners equity side, that these accounts both have DEBIT on the left and CREDIT on the right BUT THE PLUS AND MINUS SIGNS ARE MIRROR IMAGES OF ONE ANOTHER! This means that a debit to an asset account increases the quantity in that account and a credit decreases it. For the other half of the balance sheet, the Liabilities and Owners' Equity, side the reverse holds: a debit decreases these accounts, whereas credits increase them. If the above few points are understood, then the mystery of debits and credits will soon be vanquished.

A person concerned about his weight will step on the scale at regular intervals to "take inventory." So, too, the businessman at least once a year (required by German law), but more usually once a month, will take inventory and prepare a balance sheet listing all his assets (and of course the other side that goes with it--whose assets are they, lenders or owners?). If the weightwatcher notices a difference in weight, he might want to know why or how this difference came about--did he exercise more and burn off more calories, or did he eat less? Again, the businessman would also like to know why the balance increased or decreased.

Now we can make the link to the income statement. As assets are consumed in the production of income, they are transformed into expenses and transferred into temporary accounts. The wages paid to employees, the utility bills that are paid for electricity needed to operate the store, the cost of the goods that are sold, all are examples of the asset accounts, in this case cash and inventory, that are

fig. 2


(ASSETS)
ACTIVA
(LIABILITIES & O.E.)
PASSIVA
(CASH)
+ BANK –
5.000 ①
1.000 ①
REVENUE
– EINNAHMEN +
③ 20.000
20.000 *
+ –
LÖHNE (AUFWAND)
① 5.000
5.000 ②
+ –
STROM (AUFWAND)
① 1.000
1.000 ②
– +
(INCOME SUMMARY)
VERLUST u. GEWINN
② 5.000
② 1.000
④ 14.000
20.000 ③
– +
(OWNERS EQUITY)
EIGENKAPITAL
14.000 ④
(an increase in owners' equity = profit, a decrease = loss)

① PAID EXPENSES (SAMPLE: WAGES, ELECTRICITY) – DEBIT THE EXPENSE CREDIT CASH

② TRANSFERRED EXPENSES (CREDIT EXPENSE, DEBIT SUMMARY ACCOUNT) TO INCOME SUMMARY

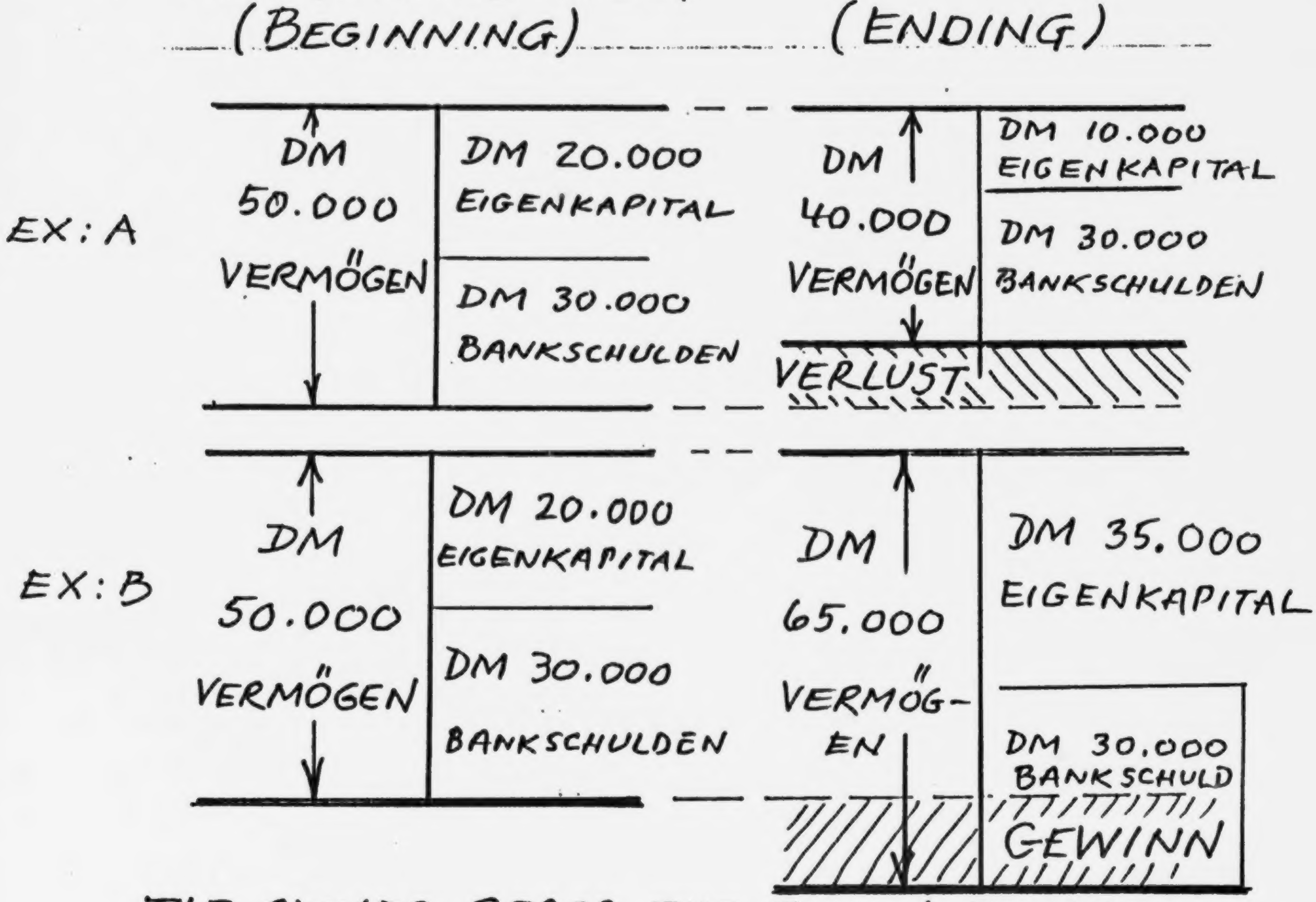
③ TRANSFERRED REVENUES TO INCOME SUMMARY (DEBIT REVENUES CREDIT INCOME SUMMARY)

④ CLOSE INCOME SUMMARY ACCOUNT TO OWNERS' EQUITY (DEBIT INC. S. CREDIT O.E.)

* COLLECTED OVER THE ACCOUNTING PERIOD

fig. 3

die BILANZ
THE BALANCE SHEET


(BEGINNING)
(ENDING)
EX: A
DM 50.000 VERMÖGEN
DM 20.000 EIGENKAPITAL
DM 30.000 BANKSCHULDEN
DM 40.000 VERMÖGEN
DM 10.000 EIGENKAPITAL
DM 30.000 BANKSCHULDEN
VERLUST
EX: B
DM 50.000 VERMÖGEN
DM 20.000 EIGENKAPITAL
DM 30.000 BANKSCHULDEN
DM 65.000 VERMÖG-EN
DM 35.000 EIGENKAPITAL
DM 30.000 BANKSCHULD
GEWINN

THE OWNER BEARS THE RISK & REWARDS

IN EXAMPLE "A" THE ASSETS AND OWNERS' EQUITY SHRANK DUE TO A DM 10.000 LOSS

IN EXAMPLE "B" THE ASSETS AND OWNERS' EQUITY GREW BY A DM 15.000 NET INCOME reduced (credited) while expense accounts are increased (debited). On the equity side of the balance sheet are temporary revenue (income) accounts (in our example just the one account called "revenue"). At the end of each accounting period the expense accounts are matched against the revenue accounts in another temporary account called "income summary" to determine the net gain or loss. It is this information that is displayed on the income statement. When the expenses and revenues have been gathered in the income summary account, the net balance (either revenue or expense, whichever is greater) is transferred to the owners' equity account (Figure 2). If there is a net income, the owner's equity side of the balance sheet increases. On the other hand, a net loss decreases the owner's equity. Figure 3 will help to clarify this.

Your students must be made aware that it is the owners of the business who suffer any losses or enjoy any gains. Creditors get only their loan principal plus a fixed rate of interest income, regardless of how well the company does. It is the owners who take the greater risks, and with higher risk comes the potential for higher returns, which is the driving force of capitalism.

I hope this paper has shown the extent to which accounting can and should be introduced in a beginning

Business German course and the benefits of such an effort. The vocabulary and accounting exercise appended to this paper should make the foregoing discussion come alive.

SUGGESTIONS FOR A SYLLABUS FOR COMMERCIAL GERMAN AT AN INTERMEDIATE AND ADVANCED LEVEL: EXPLANATION OF METHODOLOGIES AND TECHNIQUES

by

Rose Marie A. Marfurt
University of Missouri-Kansas City
College of Arts and Sciences
Foreign Languages and Literatures
Kansas City, Missouri 64110

Suggestions for a Syllabus for Commercial German at an Intermediate and Advanced Level: Explanation of Methodologies and Techniques

Rose Marie A. Marfurt, University of Missouri-Kansas City

When we compare our language courses for professional purposes on a college level to similar ones in German speaking countries, we can easily notice that language teaching in the United States is certainly not befitting its country's role as the world's leading economic power. It would be of advantage for our communication oriented profession to be more enthusiastic about interaction with the world of business.

My presentation aims primarily at providing German teachers with ideas for the design of a commercial German course and at the suggestion of techniques which I use in my intermediate and advanced commercial German course for students who wish to master the essential vocabulary and style specific to German business.

Given the broad scope of such a course, I suggest to divide the material into fourteen chapters, which contain each five sections:

1. A selection of a broad range of typical German business letters exemplifying operations in all branches of export and import, followed by a special terminology list pertaining to the business letters dealt with in that section.
2. A descriptive text in German treating the area of business and economic concepts the specific letters are dealing with. Is is followed by a German-English vocabulary list of the important terms contained in the descriptive text, complemented by a list of verbs in the infinitive and a sample sentence using the verb.
3. Discussion questions relating to the text for testing comprehension.
4. An up-to-date authentic text from the economic section of a German or Swiss newspaper constitutes the final section.
5, Comprehension questions, and discussion/composition topics, allowing summarizing the mainpoints orally or in writing.

I have based the contents of each section partly on my collection of a wide range of business letters which I am able to obtain from Swiss and German businesses and on articles from the economic section of the Neue Zürcher Zeitung and Frankfurter Allgemeine, which represented a useful tool for the preparation of the framework of such a course.

Detailed Description of the Contents of the Various Sections

Section 1:

The letters exemplifying operations in all branches of export and import contain the following correspondence:

a. Correspondence within the trade, e.g.
inquiries about prices and terms of delivery, offers and quotations, placement of orders.

b. Correspondence during normal processing of an order, e.g.
notification of shipment, invoicing, confirmation of receipt of merchandise.

c. Discrepancies and delays in an order, e.g.
delay in delivery and payment, complaints regarding merchandise.

d. Banking operations, e.g.
opening of a bank account, request for credit, opening of a letter of credit with a foreign bank.

e. Shipping of merchandise and insurance of shipments, e.g.
shipping documents, extent of insurance coverage, import licences, customs.

Handout I shows a model letter exemplifying a banking operation, i.e. the opening of a letter of credit with a foreign bank. A special vocabulary list follows the letter.

After discussion of the vocabulary, the letter should be translated into English in writing and then back into German with the objective of transmitting a message in mind. The meaning of a word can only be fully understood if the student is familiar with the subject dealt with in the given text. Therefore the presentation of not only the concepts, but also of the terminology and phraseology of the given area is involved.

Section 2: (see handouts II, III, IV, V)

The descriptive text of the specific area of business the model letter is dealing with, here terms of payment and delivery in foreign trade, is complemented by a vocabulary list in which the verbs are presented in the infinitive, past tense and perfect, followed by the English equivalent. A sentence containing the verb, will facilitate the understanding of the context in which the verb is used. The nouns, adjectives and other parts of speech are given in German and in English. Before attempting translation and discussion of the descriptive text, reinforcement of the new business vocaulary and concepts will have to be the first step. Drills might be introduced to assist the student in learning the extensive new vocabulary, e.g. to give the word that corresponds to definitions or to complete sentences with the missing word. Only the translation of a segment of the text into English should be attempted. It is important to stress that translation is an operation which involves transferring from one language to another all elements of meaning found in the text, ensuring that they retain their relative importance in the translation, and taking into account the differences that exist between the source-language culture and that of the target-language. The student should be taught to identify in the source language text structures and phrases which can be translated literally without changing meaning and those who cannot be treated in the same way. It is therefore important for the teacher to show students the distinction between message meaning and structural meaning, if he expects the translation to be other than a dictionary equivalence. You have to make them aware that what you find in dictionaries, is structural meaning of words, which merely includes signs in isolation, out of context and situation. Students must therefore be taught not to have blind faith in their dictionaries, but to use them judiciously.

Section 3: (see handout VI)

The descriptive text is followed by discussion questions relating to the entire text. They are open-ended, calling for an opinion or a debate.

Sections 4 and 5: (see handouts VII and VIII)

The last part of each chapter consists of a main reading of increased difficulty, taken from an authentic text of the economic part of a German or Swiss newspaper. A German-English glossary at the end of the text is no longer given, because the student must now be taught to make a judicious use of the dictionary. In this particular chapter, the subject deals with "problems of currency policies". The comprehension level of the students has now improved, and the explanation of the new terminology in his own words and in complete sentences should now cause less problems. One approach to the text is to prepare the students to answer the questions. First have them read the text aloud, then assign underlining the main ideas it contains, then summarizing them in ten lines, using the language of the text, then in five and three. After having completed underlining all words directly related to the main idea, pick out five key words from the point of view of the message, then suggest a translation for these words, bearing the text in mind.

Now that the student has reinforced exposure to the vocabulary, structures, and appropriate style, encourage him/her to speak in a framework that uses the subject matter and to be more original and creative with the language.

A set of comprehension questions, as well as some discussion or composition topics, will conclude this last chapter.

I hope that you have found through my suggestions and examples a frame work for a commercial German course, which can be taught in one semester, since the material is divided into 14 chapters.

Model Letter Exemplifying a Banking Operation

Eröffnung eines Akkreditivs bei einer ausländischen Bank

Crédit National
3200 Marseille

8021 Zürich
Börsenstrasse 183
6. August 198..

Betrifft
Eröffnung eines unwiderruflichen
Akkreditivs

Wir bitten Sie, der Société Anonyme des Comptoirs in Tunis, ein unwiderrufliches Akkreditiv in Höhe von

ffrs. 480.000,-

(Vierhundertachtzigtausend francs)

zu eröffnen, das bis zum 6. Februar des folgenden Jahres gültig sein soll.

Zahlen Sie bitte zu unseren Lasten, gegen Rückgabe aller Dokumente, betreffend

60 Ballen Raphia aus Tunis,

je ffrs. 17.600 für 100 kg, cif Zürich, zahlbar 90 Tage nach Sicht. Käufer ist die Firma Tuchfabrik AG, Zürich.

Wir bitten Sie, die Dokumente sofort nach Erhalt mit der Abrechnung über diese Angelegenheit an uns zu senden.

Hochachtungsvoll

Kreditanstalt Zürich

Vokabular

unwiderruflich-irrevocable
cif-cost, insurance and freight incl.
ein Akkreditiv eröffnen-
to open an irrevocable confirmed credit
gültig-valid
zu unseren Lasten-to our debit
Rückgabe-return
betreffend-concerning
sofort nach Erhalt-immediately on receipt
Abrechnung-settlement of accounts

Descriptive Text

Dealing with Terms of Payment and Delivery in Foreign Trade

Die Zahlungs-und Lieferungsbedingungen im Aussenhandel

Grundsätzlich können im Aussenhandel dieselben Zahlungsbedingungen wie im Binnenhandel gelten. Durch die oft grossen Entfernungen, die zwischen den beiden Handelspartnern liegen, und die damit zusammenhängende Schwerfälligkeit, haben sich zur Sicherung beider Seiten bestimmte internationale Gepflogenheiten in der Zahlungsweise entwickelt.

I . Das Dokumentenakkreditiv

Der Importeur eröffnet bei seiner Bank ein Akkreditiv zugunsten des Lieferers (Exporteur). Das Akkreditiv ist ein Zahlungsauftrag, das unter den angeführten Bedingungen dem Exporteur zur Verfügung steht. In diesem Akkreditiv wird der Betrag für die zu liefernden Waren, gegebenenfalls auch Nebenkosten und die bestellte Ware angeben.

Ebenso wird die Laufzeit in Tagen oder Monaten festgesetzt, z.B. 60 Tage. Für den Exporteur sind nur unwiderrufliche Akkreditive von Interesse, d.h. solche, die innerhalb der Laufzeit ihm zu den angegebenen Bedingungen zur Verfügung stehen. Der Einfuhrhändler bestimmt im Akkreditiv, welche Dokumente vom Exporteur einzureichen sind. Ausserdem kann angegeben werden, ob das Akkreditiv teilbar und übertragbar ist.

Diese Akkreditivdaten werden der Bank des Ausfuhrhändlers von der Bank des Importeurs übermittelt. Wenn die Bank des Exporteurs sich zur Zahlung des Akkreditivbetrages bei Vorlage der vorgeschriebenen Dokumente verpflichtet, spricht man von einem bestätigten, andernfalls von einem unbestätigten Akkreditiv.

Der Exporteur hat nun innerhalb der Akkreditivlaufzeit die Möglichkeit, die Lieferung zusammenzustellen und vor Fristablauf die Dokumente seiner Bank vorzulegen, um die Zahlung entgegenzunehmen.

Die Bank ist bei der Abwicklung eines Akkreditivs der Treuhänder ihrer Kunden. Die Zahlungsweise ist für den Exporteur von grossem Vorteil:

1. Er hat genügend Zeit, um die Sendung vorzubereiten.

2. Er hat innerhalb der Laufzeit die Gewissheit, dass der Käufer vom Vertrag nicht zurücktreten wird.

3. Er kann sicher damit rechnen, nach Abfertigung der Sendung gegen Vorlage der Dokumente in den Besitz des Akkreditivbetrages zu gelangen.

II. Eine andere Zahlungsart ist die Zahlung D/P (documents against payment), gewöhnlich "Kasse gegen Dokumente" genannt. In diesem Fall gelangt die Warensendung in den Bestimmungshafen des Importeurs, der dann verständigt wird, bei der Auftragsbank des Exporteurs die Dokumente gegen Zahlung des angegebenen Betrages einzulösen. Diese Zahlungsbedingung ist für den Importeur sehr vorteilhaft, da er den Akkreditivbetrag nicht monatelang festlegen muss und erst beim Eintreffen seiner Bestellung bezahlen muss. Für den Exporteur ergibt sich das Risiko des Annahmeverzuges.

III.Es gibt noch andere Zahlungsarten im Aussenhandel, wie z.B. Vorauszahlung eines Teilbetrages der Rechnung bei der Bestellung, bei der Fertigstellung oder beim Versand, und auch wie im Binnenhandel, Gewährung eines offenen Zahlungszieles.

Welche Dokumente kann der Importeur bei der Einlösung des Akkreditivs verlangen?

1. die auf seinen Namen ausgestellte Rechnung des Exporteurs (Exporteurfaktura)
2. die Konsularfaktura und das Ursprungszeugnis
3. den Seefrachtbrief (Konnossement)
4. die Versicherungspolice der Sendung
5. verschiedene Bescheinigungen, z.B. von der Gesundheitsbehörde des Ursprungslandes.

Die Lieferbedingungen im Aussenhandel werden in Preisen mit besonderen Klauseln ausgedrückt:

1. der "fob"-Preis (fob=free on board = frei an Bord).
   Aufgrund dieser Klausel ist der Exporteur für die seemässige Verpackung, den Transport bis zum Seehafen und das Verladen auf dem Schiff verantwortlich. Z.B. Preis DM 2500,- fob Hamburg.
2. der "cif"-Preis (cif = cost, insurance, freight = Kosten, Versicherung, Fracht).
   Dieser Preis umfasst alle Unkosten, die bis in den Bestimmungshafen des Abnehmers entstehen, d.h. zu dem fob-Preis noch die Versicherung, die Fracht und die Nebenkosten. Z.B. Preis DM 3100,- cif New York.

3. der "cf"-Preis (cf = cost, freight = Kosten, Fracht).

In diesem Preis sind von seiten des Abladers keine Versicherungsspesen einkalkuliert. Für die Versicherung ist der Abnehmer verantwortlich. Z.B. Preis DM 3000,- cf New York.

Die Incoterms 1953 (=International Commercial Terms) der Pariser Internationalen Handelskammer führen noch folgende Lieferbedingungen an:

4. ex work = ab Werk
5. f.o.r. (free on rail), frei Waggon
6. f.a.s. (free alongside ship) - frei Längsseite Schiff
7. freight or carriage paid to ... = frachtfrei...
8. ex ship = ab Schiff
9. ex quay (duty paid) = ab Kai (Zoll bezahlt).

Vocabulary:

eröffnen+ A, eröffnete, hat eröffnet Er hat ein Akkreditiv eröffnet.	to open
bestimmen + A, bestimmte, hat bestimmt Der Importeur bestimmt die Dokumente im Akkreditiv.	to state
einreichen + A, reichte ein, hat eingereicht Wir müssen für diese Geschäft viele Dokumente einreichen.	to file,to submit
(sich) verpflichten zu + D, verpflichtete, hat verpflichtet Der Exporteur verpflichtet sich zur Lieferung innerhalb von drei Monaten	to oblige, to pledge
entgegennehmen + A, mahm entgegen, hat entgegengenommen Nach Vorlage der Dokumente kann man die Zahlung entgegennehmen.	to accept, to receive
zurücktreten von + D, trat zurück, ist zurückgetreten Von diesem Kauf werde ich zurücktreten.	to withdraw
verständigen + A, verständigte, hat verständigt Die Bank verständigte den Importeur vom Eintreffen der Dokumente.	to arrange, to settle to inform
einlösen + E, löste ein, hat eingelöst Gegen Zahlung des angeführten Betrages können die Dokumente eingelöst werden.	to honor, to redeem,

beglaubigen + A, beglaubigte, hat beglaubigt Die Exportfaktura muss beim zuständigen Konsulat beglaubigt werden.	to get legalized
die Schwerfälligkeit	slowness, heaviness
die Abwicklung	settlement of a business
die Sicherung	protection, guarantee
die Gepflogenheit	custom, usage
das Dokumentarakkreditiv	documentary letter of credit
der Zahlungsauftrag	order for payment
die Nebenkosten	additional charges
die Laufzeit	validity
die Vorlage	presentation
der Treuhänder	trustee, fiduciary
die Gewissheit	assurance
die Abfertigung	delivery, dispatch
der Besitz	possession
das Eintreffen	arrival
die Vorauszahlung	payment in advance
der Teilbetrag	partial amount
die Fertigstellung	completion
die Gewährung	granting
die Konsulatsfaktura	consular invoice
das Ursprungszeugnis	certificate of origin
der Seefrachtbrief, das Konnossement	bill of lading
die Versicherungspolice	insurance policy
die Bescheinigung	attestation, certificate
die Gesundheitsbehörde	public health office
die Klausel	clause
das Verladen	loading
der Dampfer	steamer
der Luftfrachtbrief	air freight bill of lading
grundsätzlich	fundamentally
unwiderruflich	irrevocable
übertragbar	transferable
bestätigt	confirmed
seemässig	seaworthy
verantwortlich	responsible
teilbar	divisible

Discussion Questions to Descriptive Text

I. Beantworten Sie die folgenden Fragen:

1. Wo eröffnet der Importeur ein Akkreditiv?
2. Warum ist das Akkreditiv ein Zahlunsauftrag?
3. Warum sind für den Exporteur nur unwiderrufliche Akkreditive von Interesse?
4. Wie wird die Laufzeit festgesetzt?
5. Wann spricht man von einem bestätigten Akkreditiv?
6. Ist es von Vorteil für den Kunden, dass die Bank bei der Abwicklung eines Akkreditivs der Treuhänder ist?
7. Welches sind die Vorteile dieser Zahlungsweise für den Exporteur?
8. Wie nennt man die andere Zahlungsart?
9. Welche Dokumente kann der Importeur bei der Einlösung des Akkreditives verlangen?
10. Wie werden die Lieferungsbedingungen im Aussenhandel ausgedrückt?

Marfurt VII

Newspaper Article from Neue Zürcher Zeitung 14 February 1987, p.17

Dealing with Problems of Currency Policies

Währungspolitische Vexierbilder

Einmal mehr neigt sich an den internationalen Devisenmärkten eine Woche voller Hektik und Nervosität dem Ende zu. Zwar hielt die Pause im Sinkflug des Dollars übers Ganze gesehen an, aber die täglichen Kurssprünge waren dafür um so grösser. Auf längere Sicht besteht weitgehend Uebereinstimmung darüber, dass die Ueberwertung des Dollars, die im Februar 1985 kulminiert hatte, inzwischen korrigiert worden ist. Eine weitere Talfahrt müsste die Exportwirtschaften der betroffenen Länder-darunter insbesondere die Bundesrepublik und Japan, aber auch die Schweiz - früher oder später in arge Bedrängnis bringen.

Dass die Märkte angesichts der heftigen und willkürlichen Kursschwankungen stark verunsichert sind, kann nicht überraschen. Ueberraschen muss jedoch der Umstand, dass die verschiedenen Regierungen und insbesondere die amerikanische ihre währungspolitischen Differenzen in aller Oeffentlichkeit diskutierten. Schon im vergangenen Herbst hatte die Administration Reagan ihre Handelspartner vor die Alternative gestellt, entweder resolut auf Expansionskurs umzuschalten oder einen weiteren Dollarzerfall in Kauf zu nehmen. Bonn wie Tokio reagierten darauf mit zinspolitischen Lockerungen, die allerdings bisher keine Trendwende an den Devisenmärkten zu bewirken vermochten; weitergehende Massnahmen wurden mit dem Hinweis auf den Primat der Preisstabilität abgelehnt. Dagegen ist Washington einen vergleichbaren Beitrag im Sinne einer verantwortungsbewussteren Haushaltpolitik noch immer schuldig geblieben. Derart widersprüchliche Signale sind erfahrungsgemäss wenig geeignet, zu geordneten Verhältnissen an den Devisenmärkten beizutragen.

Aeusserer Anlass für die Turbulenzen sind die massiven aussenwirtschaftlichen Ungleichgewichte unter den wichtigsten Handelspartnern. Vorab Amerika ist mit einem Handelsbilanzdefizit von bisher unbekannter Grössenordnung konfrontiert, dem ebenso rekordverdächtige Ueberschüsse in der Bundesrepublik sowie Japan gegenüberstehen. Die beispiellosen

Kursveränderungen der letzten zwei Jahre zwischen Dollar und Yen beziehungsweise D-Mark haben in der amerikanischen Aussenhandelsstatistik allerdings noch kaum sichtbare Spuren hinterlassen. Die Folgen davon sind protektionistische Fieberschübe wachsender Intensität auf der einen und erschwerte Absatzbedingungen für die Exportindustrie sowie entsprechende konjunkturelle Bremsspuren auf der anderen Seite.

Comprehension Questions:

1. Warum neigte sich an den internationalen Devisenmärkten die Hektik und Nervosität zu Ende ?
2. Wann hatte die Ueberbewertung des Dollars kulminiert ?
3. Wann und warum müsste eine weitere Talfahrt die Exportwirtschaften der Bundesrepublik und der Schweiz in Bedrängnis bringen ?
4. Warum sind die Märkte stark verunsichert ?
5. Diskutiert die amerikanische Regierung ihre währungspolitischen Differenzen in der Oeffentlichkeit ?
6. Vor welche Alternativen hat die Administration Reagan ihre Handelspartner gestellt ?
7. Wie reagierten Bonn und Tokio ?
8. Vermochten diese Lockerungen eine Trendwende an den Devisenmärkten zu bewirken ?
9. Was gab Anlass für die Turbulenzen ?
10. Ist das Handelsbilanzdefizit Amerikas sehr gross ?
11. Haben die Kursveränderungen der letzten zwei Jahre in der amerikanischen Aussenhandelsstatistik sichtbare Spuren hinterlassen ?
12. Welches sind die Folgen solcher Kursveränderungen ?

Discussion or Composition Topic:

1. Welches sind die Gründe für das grosse amerikanische Handelsbilanzdefizit ?

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TEACHING BUSINESS GERMAN BASICS ON THE SECOND YEAR LEVEL

by

Heidi M. Rockwood
Georgia Institute of Technology
Atlanta, Georgia 30332

Teaching Business German Basics on the Second Year Level
Heidi M. Rockwood

In this paper I intend to share my experiences in teaching Business German at the Georgia Institute of Technology essentially on an elementary level. This type of course had long been requested by our students, but for various reasons we have no choice but to offer it on the second year level. That means that the students often have no more than 90 hours of preparation in German. The Duisberg Gesellschaft and Goethe Institute workshops and seminars that I had attended, however, were all geared towards a third and fourth year clientele which might be potentially prepared to pass the "Diplom Wirtschaftsdeutsch." Furthermore they assume that we are dealing with a homogeneous group of students with some business background or interest. Most of our students, however, have an engineering or science background. That meant that I truly had to devise a course that would operate on an "elementary level."

The three quarter, 90 hour sequence that I prepared also contained material from scientific and technological areas. I would here like to outline only the business part of it, which comprised about 60 hours. We did use Doris Merrifield's "Deutsche Wirtschaftssprache für Amerikaner" as textbook, but selected only some readings from it and supplemented them frequently with newspaper or magazine material.[1]

Selection of appropriate materials was one of the major tasks the course required, therefore I would like to outline the procedure used briefly. Every text was screened carefully according to two criteria:

1. How easily can students with no business background understand the subject matter?

2. Are the text passages logically constructed and not too difficult from a lexical and syntactic point of view?

Since different teachers' selection criteria would of course differ widely with respect to point 1, I will only mention that my experiences with Merrifield's material showed that "Industrie und Handwerk," "Marketing," "Transportwesen," or "Betriebliche Umgangsformen" are "safe" textual areas, since these topics are readily understood by the average educated student. Other topics proved more problematic; some, however, such as "Sozialpartner," "Sozialabgaben" or "Bankwesen," present useful and culturally informative material. If I was going to include them, however, it was of particular importance to evaluate the textual complexity of a passage to make sure that the students were not faced with difficulties on every front.

The lexical, logical and syntactic evaluation of text passages was done with the aid of the Goethe Institute guidelines outlined on these two pages.[2]

1. Dimension: LINGUISTIC SIMPLICITY
   - simple presentation
   - short, simple sentences
   - appropriate choice of words
2. Dimension: ORGANISATION/ORDER
   - expectability

- clarity and logic in the presentation of thoughts

3. Dimension: BREVITY/CONCISENESS
    - the text is not too long, it does not contain unnecessary information
    - the text is not too short, it contains all the necessary auxiliary information
    - the text does not contain useless repetitions
4. Dimension: ADDITIONAL STIMULATING FEATURES
    - the text is interesting
    - the text is colorful
    - the text has personal appeal
5. MORPHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS
    - verb: person/number
      gender
      tense
      mood
    - noun: number
      case
    - other types of words: connectors
      elements of contextual reference (pronouns etc.)
      prepositions etc.
6. SYNTACTIC ANALYSIS
    - relationship of simple vs. complex sentences
    - types of dependent clauses
7. LEXICAL ELEMENTS
    - origin and degree of specialization of business-subject-oriented lexical elements

- amount of specialized versus general lexical terms

8. COMMUNICATIVE PROCEDURES

- linguistic ones
- non-linguistic ones (graphs, statistics etc.)

Points 1. through 4. stress positive qualities that a text ought to possess. Points 5. through 8. mention possible trouble areas which teachers ought to consider. It is impossible to discuss the evaluation process fully, and teachers must decide individually which criteria to concentrate on, but some points will be briefly illustrated with the help of two texts taken from Merrifield's book.[3]

Take for example lexical complexity: how much of the vocabulary can the students be expected to understand, either because they are familiar with it or because the words are cognates?

TEXT A	TEXT B
Geschäft abwickeln	Kreditgeber
Bargeldverkehr	Ziel einräumen
Girokonto	Wechsel/Tratte
Eingänge	Wechsel ziehen auf
Barscheck	Wechsel akzeptieren/Akzept
Verrechnungsscheck	Fälligkeitstermin
Betrag überweisen	Indossament
Rechnung begleichen	Sollzinsen
überweisungsformular	Dispositionskredit
Saldo/saldieren	Summe gutschreiben
Kontoauszug	Konto belasten

Dispositionskredit

Abbuchungsauftrag

Versicherungsprämie

Darlehen

Hypothek(enbank)

Gläubiger

The two wordlists seem to indicate that the amount of material the students probably have not seen before is approximately equal in both texts, but that the "hard to decipher" expressions (underlined) are perhaps fewer in text A. This is, of course, the result of the fact that the subject matter of B is in itself not very familiar to the layman, whereas text A deals with relatively unproblematic matters.

The syntactic complexity of the two passages shows similar differences. Both are in the original exactly 16 lines long, but text A contains 13 sentences, B has 12. That means that the sentences in B are longer and more complex. Text A contains only six complex sentences, whereas B has eight, several with multiple embeddings. A has five sentences that are less than ten words long, but B contains only one short sentence. These criteria affect the readability of a passage for beginners, especially, if other syntactic characteristics fall in line, as they do in this case: Text A has six coordinate clauses among its complex sentences, only one subordinate clause and two relative clauses. Our students seem to have much more trouble with identifying and understanding the latter two. The differences in word order may have something to do with this. Text B contains five subordinate clauses and four relative clauses, and no coordinate clauses at all.

On the sentence level too there are some noticeable differences between the passages. Based on what we can cover in our first year courses, I expect the students to have some difficulties with Passives, Genitive constructions, the use of prepositions and instances of pronominal reference. Once again, text B proves to be more complex than A. A contains two Passives, B three; there are two Genitive constructions in either one; A uses prepositional constructions 12 times, whereas B has 17 of them. Since in the latter the danger of "subject-specific" use of lexical material is particularly great, this constitutes a dangerous increase. Pronominal reference (personal, demonstrative and relative) is used eight times in A and 13 times in B. All these findings combined add up to the fact that A is the more accessible text passage.

It seems a herculean task to perform this kind of analysis on all texts, but it should be sufficient to do it a few times systematically and thoroughly to get a good understanding of the kinds one can safely use.

Other evaluative criteria used in the Goethe Institute process, such as textual cohesiveness, are of course of equal importance, but since my texts were generally very short, I could safely avoid spending very much time on them. It should be noted, though, that in this respect too text B fails the test: the focus shifts unexpectedly from "Wechsel" to different kinds of loans in the last third of the paragraph.

If one looks at non-textbook texts one should also pay special attention to finding some that are accompanied by graphs or other illustrative material, since that helps the students identify the subject matter under discussion.

The selection of the material is, however, only one small step in designing a course. In our case, more soul-searching went into setting achievable "Lernziele." These goals were eventually set as follows:

1. Increase in reading ability and vocabulary recognition.
2. Some ability in writing business letters.
3. Some - limited - ability in speaking about the subjects under discussion.

In the following I will explain some of the exercises and techniques used to achieve these goals.

1. As far as reading ability was concerned, we aimed at no more than an ability in what the Goethe Institute calls "kursorisches Lesen," i.e. absorbing the relevant information in a text, or "selegierendes Lesen," in which a specific piece of information is extracted from the text.[4] The Goethe Institute advocates many different exercises to practice these skills; some of them are too complicated for beginners, but the following were helpful. Some exercise forms are self-explanatory, in other cases I will give examples.[5]

a. Underline words you recognize in the text.

b. Write brief headlines for paragraphs.

Example:

Teaching Business German Basics on the Second Year Level
Heidi M. Rockwood

Bei den Auftragseingängen in der Industrie zeichnet sich ein Mini-Aufschwung ab. Das Bundeswirtschaftsministerium meldet, daß die Bestellungen im Juni um rund zwei Prozent höher lagen als im Mai. Die Berechnungen ergeben, daß vor allem die Aufträge aus dem Inland zugenommen haben.

Obwohl die Preise im Juli generell höher waren als im Juni, konnten die Verbraucher auch einige Einsparungen machen: so sind die Preise für Nahrungsmittel um 0,6% gesunken. Auch im Vergleich zum Vorjahr können Hausfrauen günstige Angebote nutzen: die Kartoffeln sind um 21,4% und das Frischobst um 12,3% preiswerter als im Juli 1982.

Die Rohölimporte der BRD sind im Vergleich zum Vorjahr um 11,3% auf 32,6 Millionen Tonnen zurückgegangen. Damit hat sich der Trend verstärkt, weniger Rohöl, dafür aber mehr ölprodukte zu importieren. (Die Zeit, August 1983)

ASSIGNMENT: Schreiben Sie für jeden Paragraphen eine überschrift.

An additional assignment designed to concentrate on a more complete understanding of the passage could easily be added. For example:

1. June 1983 saw increases over 1982 in the following areas:
   a. oil imports
   b. price of potatoes

c. orders received by industry

d. all of the above

2. The FRG imported more in the following areas:

   a. fresh fruit

   b. raw oil

   c. petroleum products

   d. overall

3. A "Mini-Aufschwung" implies that

   a. "Konjunktur" rises just a little bit

   b. "Konjunktur" rises significantly

   c. "Konjunktur" slumps

   d. "Konjunktur" stagnates

In addition to this type of exercise the following ones proved helpful:

c. Determine what kind of person might be interested in this text.

d. Determine whether a series of statements made about a text is True, False, or Not In The Text;

e. Determine whether the information given in certain statements is contained in a text or a graph or both.

f. Use the information given in a text to determine the correct version of a second text.

Example:

Nach jahrelangem Mitgliederschwund registrieren die Gewerkschaften wieder starken Zulauf durch junge Arbeitnehmer. Die IG Chemie rechnet gar mit einem Rekord an

Neuaufnahmen: Ende August hatte die Gewerkschaft 92 294 Mitglieder unter 25 Jahren, 6 045 mehr als im August 1984. Auch die IG Metall warb erfolgreich: Im vergangenen Jahr traten 89 000 junge Metaller ein, 15 000 mehr als im Vorjahr. Für dieses Jahr rechnet die Gewerkschaft sogar mit über 100 000 Neuzugängen.[6]

Wählen Sie die korrekte Version:

Es treten wieder (mehr/weniger) junge Leute in die Gewerkschaften ein. Die IG Metall rechnet mit vielen neuen (Mitgliedern/Tarifverträgen). Viele neue Gewerkschaftler sind (über 40/unter 25). Auch die IG Metall hatte (89 000/15 000) neue Mitglieder. (Fürs nächste Jahr/dieses Jahr) rechnet sie mit weiteren neuen Mitgliedern.

These reading exercises must go hand in hand with vocabulary buildup, for example:

g. Write down x unknown terms in the text and try to determine their meaning from the context.

h. Coordinate a series of definitions and terms.

Example:

Please coordinate the terms on the left with the definitions on the right:

PLAKAT	die "persönliche" Vorstellung des Produktes durch einen Vertreter
ANZEIGE	die öffentliche Vorführung eines Produktes, nicht nur für potentielle Käufer
WERBESPOT	Bild mit Text, an einer Litfassäule oder

	in einem Schaufenster
KUNDENGESPRÄCH	kurze Werbung im Radio oder im Fernsehen
AUSSTELLUNG	kurzer Text in der Zeitung

i. Give a text with "blanks" that have to be filled from a vocabulary list provided. Sometimes a graph or a brief, unfamiliar text can provide the clues for the blanks. An example is given for the first exercise form, the second one is similar to the exercise illustrated under point f.

ERZEUGER LAGER KAPITAL (GELD) INDUSTRIE

BESTELLUNGEN WARENHAUS ANGESTELLTE

VERTRETER

Use the words above to complete the text:

Der Großhändler kauft bei der ___________ oder beim _______ (z. B. einem Landwirt) ein. Er füllt große ________________ und braucht deswegen viel ____________. Er braucht auch ein _______________ oder ______________, wo er die Waren aufbewahren kann. Er braucht eine Menge ______________, die im ______________ oder im Büro arbeiten. Seine ____________ besuchen andere Einzelhändler und nehmen _____________ auf.

Sometimes the students were tested formally in this manner, sometimes they were just given these or similar exercises to perform in class. They often sat together in groups to solve their assignments. A group leader might then announce the results, or they were written down, collected and graded.

It should be mentioned that the Merrifield book has some vocabulary buildup exercises that are a little more student-teacher interactive, such as constructing "Wortfamilien," or recognizing synonyms etc, but these can quickly get repetitious. We found it more interesting to put together the vocabulary needed for a given situation or setup.

Some kinds of exercises should perhaps be devised for building up grammatical proficiency. We did this only rarely, but occasionally used practice sheets like these:

REFLEXIVES VERB -- JA ODER NEIN?

Ich beschäftige ________ mit Wirtschaftsgeographie.

Wir wollen ________ auf verschiedene Zweige der Wirtschaft eingehen.

Wir interessieren ________ für die Industrie.

Auf Flüssen können ________ Waren befördert werden.

Die meisten deutschen Flüsse fließen ________ von Süden nach Norden.

Man kann ________ am Rhein viele Weinberge bewundern.

Schafe begnügen ________ mit weniger gutem Weideland.

2. Our second goal was to achieve some ability in writing business letters. The students were not required to buy an extra textbook for this purpose, but Sachs was recommended and they were given a great many handouts to provide some "textual background."[7]

Nobody was actually required to compose any letters from scratch until the very end of the three course sequence. Initially the students were taught to observe and produce the proper external form of a business letter, such as Anrede, Bezugszeichen, Datum etc. These points, as all other letter writing skills, were introduced in two to three hour chunks spread evenly over each quarter (about three per quarter), but they were also inserted frequently and informally during other class periods. For example, the students might be given a list of Anreden, some correct and some incorrect, and they would be asked to circle the correct ones. Or they would be asked to "spot the error" in a fully set up letter in which some element had been misplaced or deleted.

Eventually he students could be asked to supply all external form elements on their own. This included assignments like the following:

> Ein Brief geht von Herrn Johann Schmitt in der Versandabteilung der Firma Hoechst in Frankfurt/Main an den Arzt Roland Maier in Stuttgart. Setzen Sie die äußere Form des Briefes auf. Benutzen Sie, was Sie haben, erfinden Sie den Rest. Die Form muß vollständig sein.

As a second step the students learned more about the content of business letters. They were given short synopses of the likely content of different types of letters, such as Anfrage, Angebot or Bestellung. For example:

a. Inhalt einer ANFRAGE:
   Woher kenne ich die Firma?
   Warum frage ich an?
   Was möchte ich wissen?

Angabe einer Referenz

b. Inhalt eines ANGEBOTES:

Grund für das Angebot

Preisliste

Hinweis auf Produkteigenschaften

Hoffnung auf Bestellung

After several types of letters had been introduced in different versions and the students were able to identify them, we started practicing typical phrases and vocabulary that might be used in such letters. There is of course an infinite variety of possibilities, but in some areas we are dealing with limited units. The students had to learn, for example, that the first paragraph of an Anfragebrief might contain some reference to Messe, Prospekt, or Anzeige, as a possible initial contact point for two businesses, and to phrase such facts in simple ways. There were of course several areas, such as the Zahlungsbedingungen or Lieferbedingungen, where the students' limited German or lack of factual knowledge got in the way.

Eventually a point was reached where the students could "compose" simple letters. Initially they were given a type of Lückentext, for example along the following lines:

> Schreiben Sie einen Anfragebrief. Benutzen Sie die richtige Form. Füllen Sie die Lücken im Text mit passenden Worten. Beachten Sie die äußere Form. Erfinden Sie, was Sie nicht haben. Der Brief geht von Peter Müller, einem Einzelhändler, an Herrn Georg Bender

bei der Firma Heinemann und Co. in Düsseldorf. Wählen Sie das Produkt, von dem Herr Müller spricht:

Vor kurzem habe ich __________ von __________ erfahren. Ich denke, daß ich bald selbst ________ in meinem Geschäft aufnehmen werde und bin an Ihrer Auswahl interessiert.

Bitte senden Sie mir ______________, damit ich mich ausführlicher über Ihr Produkt informieren kann.

(Schreiben Sie einen guten Schlußsatz für diesen Brief.)

At the very end of the three course sequence, the best students felt quite comfortable composing simple letters on their own.

Whenever possible, these business letter skills were also practiced during regular class periods for maybe 5 to 10 minutes at a time. While discussing Industrie und Handel, for example, the students could be asked to set up the external form of a letter to a Handelskammer or to some fictitious supplier.

3. The students had been told from the beginning of the course that due to the complexity of material and vocabulary actual speaking skills were going to be stressed least. In some areas we could initiate simple questions and answer sequences, for example in the context of opening and managing a bank account, or of inquiring whether a certain product might be available, or what the qualifications for a given job would be. These sequences were always kept very brief.

Sometimes the students were asked to get together in groups and to work out a comment on some topic, for example on the quality of a given advertisement, or the Zielgruppe it might appeal to, or where they might launch an advertising campaign for a given product.

When we were talking about different corporate structures, for example, the students were asked to formulate a conversation with a friend. They were told that they would want to form a company of some sort to market their grandmother's famous marmelade. They were asked to discuss how much financing they needed, how much control they wanted in the company and what the best structure would be for their envisioned enterprise. Obviously we did not get much beyond the "Ich brauche viel Geld. Ich werde Aktien ausgeben," stage, but you have got to start somewhere.

So far the course has been taught twice and just once in exactly this form. There were too many questions as to whether any of these ideas would actually work to make formal evaluation advisable the first time around. This will have to be done. For the time being I would like to say that the reactions from the students in our regular course evaluations were very positive. The student numbers increased significantly between the first and the second quarter and then remained steady in the third. The grades were in general good. Nobody seemed to be bewildered by assignments, homework or tests.

This type of course is often demanded by both departments and students, but teachers are reluctant to tackle the task of designing the mass of material needed for it from scratch. It would perhaps be of use to many colleagues in the field to set up an information and/or exercise exchange.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Doris F. Merrifield, Deutsche Wirtschaftssprache für Amerikaner (New York, 1985).

[2] The guidelines are based on material distributed by the Goethe Institute during a two-week seminar (München, summer 1985). Translations are my own.

[3] Merrifield, pp. 100-101. "Text A" is section 4 of the chapter "Bankwesen," "Text B" is section 6.

[4] Inge Laveau, Sach- und Fachtexte im Unterricht. Methodisch-didaktische Vorschläge für den Lehrer (München, 1985), p. 67.

[5] The Merrifield book contains exercises representing some of the exercise types mentioned; the ones given here, however, are my own.

[6] The short texts used here are generally compressed versions of "Zeitraffer" segments in DIE ZEIT. Since, with one exception, they have been simplified somewhat, no issues are specifically mentioned.

[7] Rudolf Sachs, Deutsche Handelskorrespondenz. Der Briefwechsel in Export und Import (München, 1969). In addition to that my handouts were based primarily on handouts provided by the Goethe Institute.

A CRITICAL EVALUATION OF MATERIALS AVAILABLE TO THE TEACHER OF BUSINESS GERMAN

by

Tom Wolber
Ohio Northern University

OHIO NORTHERN UNIVERSITY
ADA, OHIO 45810 • Telephone (419) 772-2112

The Getty College of Arts and Sciences
Department of Foreign Languages

Sixth Annual Conference on Languages and Communication
for World Business and the Professions
May 8 - 9, 1987
Ann Arbor, Michigan

Paper Proposal:

A CRITICAL EVALUATION OF MATERIALS AVAILABLE TO THE TEACHER OF BUSINESS GERMAN

Facing the challenge of having to teach Business German myself for the first time this academic year, I would like to use this opportunity to systematically explore all materials available to the teacher. Both English and German sources will be investigated, whether or not they may be acquired commercially. Textbooks, brochures, dictionaries, computer software, etc., will be critiqued on the basis of their currentness, accuracy, and actual usefulness in the modern business world. To a certain extent, their respective methodological approaches and the teaching techniques they propose will be scrutinized as well.

The audience will be provided with a free stack of recommended books and brochures pertaining to all levels of Business German. Additional worksheets will be distributed as well as an annotated bibliography of not only the materials discussed in this presentation, but of all materials available--whether past or present, American or European. Participation in this session will enable the language teacher to teach Business German on his/her own without having to spend too much preparation time or provide the experienced teacher with supplementary material.

The presentation would be geared towards language educators of German only. Suggested time: 30 minutes. It would be nice, however, if some additional time could be allotted to allow the audience to respond, evaluate my conclusions and recommendations, and to make suggestions.

FORMS OF GERMAN BUSINESS ORGANIZATIONS: DEVELOPMENT OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL FOR BUSINESS GERMAN WITH THE HELP OF AN EDUCATIONAL AUTHORING SYSTEM

by

Dr. Barbara Z. Harding
Georgetown University

ABSTRACT

Title: **FORMS OF GERMAN BUSINESS ORGANIZATION: DEVELOPMENT OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL FOR BUSINESS GERMAN WITH THE HELP OF AN EDUCATIONAL AUTHORING SYSTEM**

Length: 30 minutes (can also be done in 20 min. with less technical detail)

Primary Audience: Language educators and others interested in the development of CAI materials; handouts provided for German Unternehmensformen.

This presentation intends to demonstrate how the creation of a CAI system can facilitate the conceptual understanding and mastery of a particular business administration topic.

A flexible and powerful system helps build, modify, and administer a highly effective instructional instrument which can create many formats and gives the student many options.

Because of the possible implementation of division of labor between subject matter expert (economist), computer operator (knowledgeable in preparing a presentation system with the help of an authoring system), and language instructor the following **benefits** can ensue:

Consistent high-quality information on subject-matter;
Instructor can concentrate on language aspects;
The system automatically generates status reports;
It can be used for reviewing of material;
As number of students increases, cost is reduced;
Flexible scheduling improves student motivation.

Costs are one-time, as e.g. subject matter expert; computer operator; initial user training; terminal time; course entry, review, testing, and revising; or continuous: e.g. computer support; user charge; administration costs; supplemental materials maintenance.

Requirements for the system are: understandable format; interactive induvidualized instruction; crash-proof; correct special characters; graphics; retention post-testing; editing features; automatic learner statistics as aid in evaluation.

The West German law offers a wide variety of types of business ownership. Several basic differences exist between partnerships (the BGB partnership, the general (OHG), and limited (KG) partnership) and corporations (the stock corporations (AG and KG), cooperatives etc.) : partnerships are the result of contracts between parties, consist of natural persons, are closely tied to these persons, who may be liable indefinitely; corporations on the other hand are legal entities, may be perpetual in their existence, and generally limit the liability of their stockholders to the amount of the stock.

6.2.2

NEW TEACHING MATERIALS FOR BUSINESS GERMAN

by

Hartmut Karottki
Goethe Institute, Chicago

Proposal for conference paper:

Title: New Teaching Materials For Business German

The objective of the paper is to familiarize participants with recently developed topic-oriented teaching units especially designed to prepare students for the new Business German Diploma.

The following aspects will be discussed:

- how to collect authentic materials for Business German

- how to adapt them for use in the classroom

how to incorporate them into the curriculum for Business German.

All materials presented have been developed by American teachers of German, proofread by business experts, and are availaable to all participants. Transparency illustrations along with audio tapes will demonstrate the methodology and materials.

Goethe Institute Chicago Hartmut Karottki

9/25/86

(Hartmut Karottki,
Language Instructor)

THE SYNTACTIC AND GRAMMATICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF BUSINESS GERMAN LANGUAGE: A METHODOLOGICAL PROBLEM

by

Patricia R. Paulsell
Associate Professor of German
Michigan State University
College of Arts and Letters
East Lansing, Michigan 48824-1027

THE SYNTACTIC AND GRAMMATICAL CHARACTERISITICS OF BUSINESS GERMAN LANGUAGE: A METHODOLOGICAL PROBLEM

by
Patricia R. Paulsell
Michigan State University

While the past decade has witnessed an unprecedented demand for and astonishing resultant growth in enrollment in the area of German for business and professional purposes, there has been minimal progress in the development of appropriate materials for the teaching of these more specialized language skills in the American college classroom. Indeed, while the United States presently represents the largest single market for such courses, what little movement there has been toward the development of materials for fairly wide dissemination has occurred largely in England, in Germany or, if in the U.S., as a result of efforts by German-trained pedagogues. While materials developed in England have limited usefulness in U.S. classrooms because of the considerable differences in both business vocabulary and business practices between the U.S. and England, usable and quite sophisticated materials have been developed by the Carl Duisberg Gesellschaft and are currently being developed, albeit slowly, under the tutelage of the Goethe Institut within the scope of its workshops on business German. Although the materials developed thusfar through the Goethe Institut workshops hold great promise, they, as well as the materials from the Duisberg Gesellschaft suffer from problems endemic in materials prepared by German pedagogues specializing in "Sprachlehre für Ausländer," i.e. they either ignore the issue of the didacticization of grammar and syntax completely (as with the Goethe Institut materials) or they somehow expect the grammatical and syntactical characteristics of the language to be transferred to the students by a process of osmosis (as with the CDG and older Hueber texts). Considering the fact that most of these pedagogues have been trained in Germany to deal with heterogeneous groups of students in an intensive language learning situation which takes place in the country of the target language, this phenomenon is not at all surprising. Nevertheless, anyone who begins to use the materials produced by German pedagogues will quickly come to the realization that these materials have not necessarily been developed with the specific needs of American college teachers in mind, whose teaching situation is not at all analogous to that of their German colleagues. On the one hand American teachers have relatively homogeneous student groups who speak one mother tongue, an occurrence which might be classified as an advantage, but, on the other hand, American teachers are disadvantaged by the fact that they must teach students with generally low levels of international awareness in non-intensive language learning situations in classrooms which are far removed from Germany . These disadvantages, coupled with a lack of adequate funding which severely limits the scope of efforts to collect appropriate materials , have great impact upon the methodologies of teaching business German in the United States. The ideal situation, for example, would provide for each individual business German teacher the financial support to spend a few months in Germany perusing available materials for a unit on, for example, the German banking system, whereby a sequence of materials could be chosen, which would be appropriate to both the students and the teaching goals in level of linguistic sophistication, area specialization, international awareness, cross-cultural sensitivity, and grammatical/syntactical teachability. Since American college teachers do not, however, live in the best of all possible academic worlds, most of them find themselves at the mercy of budget constraints and/or materials developed by others on the basis of classroom situations not very analogous to their own.

While I, like most of my colleagues teaching business German, have learned to live with the paucity of fully adequate materials with regard to the areas mentioned above, I have come to the conclusion over the past ten years of teaching Business German that our efforts are further complicated by the methodologies used to introduce German grammar and syntax on the introductory and intermediate levels. These methodologies place business German students at a disadvantage for two reasons. Firstly, American students are accustomed to a formalistic, progressive approach to grammar and syntax in studying foreign language, which makes it difficult for the instructor to adapt the typical osmosis exercises of some business German texts for use in our classrooms. Secondly, the methodologies to which most of these students have been exposed are themselves biased in favor of certain approaches to language learning which do not form a particularly good foundation for the study of business and technical German. In the light of these observations, I would like to concentrate upon two areas for further consideration: (1) recent research concerning the most important syntactical and grammatical characteristics of business and technical German, and (2) the foundation regarding some of these characteristics to which almost all of our students have been exposed before coming into the business German classroom. In conclusion, I will offer some advice on the development of methodologies for treating certain grammatical and syntactical characteristics of business German.

Permeating our entire discussion must be the fact that business language is considered by members of our profession in the United States to be a step-child, a peripheral area of linguistic study. This is reflected not only in the lack of recognition of our efforts in teaching and publishing in this area, but also in the lack of serious research into the nature of this aspect of language itself. Such research normally provides the base for the development of appropriate teaching methodologies. The lack of such a base is certainly a major factor in the slow development of appropriate materials addressing the grammatical and syntactic peculiarities of business German language. I believe that the research has not been forthcoming because business language occupies much the same position in the hierarchy of legitimacy in the linguistic arena which, for example, the genre comedy occupies in the literary arena: research and teaching in that area are tolerated but not really taken too seriously. Our profession is biased in favor of the development of language skills in certain highly regarded areas, i.e. *belles lettres*, and in certain rigorously defined styles developed in composition and conversation formats which are anchored in a "creative writing"/"Alltagssprache" approach. Thus, it is not surprising to find that very little of the research in the area of linguistic description of business German, as scant as it is, has been done in the United States. We must, instead, look to Europe for solid scholarly research in this area.

"Business Linguistics" first surfaced as a field of serious academic pursuit shortly before the First World War in German-speaking Europe and was particularly promoted in the 1930's by members of the Prague linguistic school. After that period of bloom in the 30's interest seemed to wane until about a decade ago.[1] This recent resurgence of interest can probably be traced to the increasing importance of Germany as an international trade partner, and hence the rekindling of interest in teaching German as a business language. The production in this area is, however, not particularly prolific. The definitive recent study of the grammatical and syntactical nature of business German was carried out by two Dutch scholars and published between 1977 and 1979 in a rather obscure Dutch linguistics journal. To my knowledge, this will be the first fairly wide dissemination in the United States of the results of their analysis.

The study, which was published in three parts in the Linguistica Antverpiensia, is entitled "Die Wissenschaftliche Fachsprache der Wirtschaft: Eine Untersuchung Ihrer Syntaktischen und Syntaktisch-Lexikalischen Merkmale"[2] . The authors, J. deCort and P. Hessmann created a statistical basis for their research by assembling 2000 sentences from books by 50 authors in the following fields:

Basic concepts of economic theory
Banking
Money/currency
Stock market/money market/capital market
Federal budget
Taxes/taxation
Federal fiscal policy
Credit system

All of the works were post-1960 and representative of college level texts; no magazines or newspapers were used. The authors viewed the latter as "vulgarisierend" because they are oriented toward specific reader groups.[3] At this point we are reminded that all such linguistic studies based upon corpi of sentences from selected materials reflect certain biases on the part of the researchers; magazines and newspapers are often considered "vulgarisierend" and therefore not worthy of inclusion. The question arises here as to whether we can indeed use the deCort/Hessmann study for guidance in approaching our methodological problems regarding the grammar and syntax of business German, since most of the materials to which we have access are indeed from magazines and newspapers. A corollary question might revolve around the legitimacy of even using materials from magazines and newspapers. I can, however, assure the reader, after some years of informal analysis of the materials which I use, many of which are drawn from magazines and newspapers, that these materials do indeed seem to reflect the same findings of the deCort/Hessmann study. I would suggest, therefore, that the authors may have spurned the use of the more popular sources without actually analyzing them to see if their biases were founded. Thus, I do feel justified in applying the results of their study to my materials, and, before continuing with a discussion of their results, would like to mention that their study is also based upon much more abundant and long established statistical analyses of scientific and technical German.[4]

For my purposes I not only condensed the roughly 150 pages of the deCort/Hessmann study, but also extracted from it what I felt were the most important points for consideration with regard to possible methods of didacticization of the grammar and syntax of business German. There are five crucial areas for examination and discussion: (1) length and complexity of sentences, including type of hypotaxis (2) passive voice and the so-called "passive substitutes", (3) nominalization, (4) extended modifiers, and (5) semantic problem areas associated with certain grammatical/syntactic structures more common in business language. The subsequent pages contain condensations of the results of the deCort/Hessmann study regarding these five areas.

Grammatical and Syntactical Characteristics of Business German

I. Sentence Types: Frequency and Complexity

A. Complete Sentence Types	
1. Simple sentences	38%
2. Complex sentences	42%
a. 2 clauses	33%
b. 3 clauses	19%
c. 4 clauses	6%
d. 5 clauses	4%

B. Number of Words	
1. Sentences of up to 8 words	5.5%
2. Sentences of 9 - 16 words	28.5%
3. of 17-24 words	27.5%
4. of 25-32 words	17.2%
5. of 33-40 words	11.1%
6. of over 40 words	9.9%

C. Sentence Element in First Position	
1. Subject	55%
2. Prepositional phrase	17%
3. Other adverbials	14%
4. Particles of delimitation or emphasis (wie, so, nur, etc.)	10%
5. Others	4%

D. Types of Attributive Clauses by Frequency	
1. Relative clauses	
2. Infinitive clauses	
3. Subordinate Clauses introduced by conjunctions	
a. wenn (conditional)	18%*
b. wenn (temporal)	12%
c. da	11%
d. wie	9%
e. weil	7%
f. so daß	6%
g. während	5%

*Authors' caution: "Wenn"-conditional sentences occur twice as often in a text as might be predicted from the figures above, when one also takes into consideration those conditional sentences which are introduced not by "wenn", but by an inversion of word order. When this inversion occurs, "so" is the most frequently used correlative.

II. The Passive and so-called "Passive Substitutes"

A. The Passive Voice

The authors note that several studies over the years have observed that the passive voice is used far more frequently in scientific and technical texts than in non-technical literature. This was found to hold true for business German, where the passive voice occurs twice as frequently as in non-technical language.

1. Type of verb occurring in the passive, by frequency.
    - a. Transitive verbs without prepositional phrase to express agent 73%
    - b. Transitive verbs with prepositional phrase 22%
    - c. Intransitive verbs 5%
2. The passive with modal verbs.
    - a. 38% of all passive constructions were in combination with modal verbs.
    - b. Frequency of modals used
        1. können 56%
        2. müssen 20%
        3. sollen 18%
        4. dürfen 3%
3. Tense according to frequency
    - a. Present
    - b. Simple Past
    - c. Present Perfect
    - d. Past Perfect and Future: rare

B. The So-Called "Passive Substitutes" (10% of all finite forms)

These are constructions which "express the passive in other ways." They are semantically related to the passive. They are, by frequency:

1. sich lassen + infinitive (modal coloring: können)
2. Other reflexive constructions (modal coloring: können)
    Wenn dem so ist, dann stellt sich die Frage...
3. sein, bleiben, stehen, geben, gehen+ infinitive with zu (modal coloring: müssen or können. the meaning müssen is more frequent)
    Das Budgetdefizit ist nicht zu ertragen.
    Das Ergebnis bleibt abzuwarten.
4. man constructions
5. Verb nominalization constructions

III. Nominalization

The more technical the text, the authors found, the less frequently "real" verbs, i.e. verbs which retain their concrete meaning, occur. Such verbs, however, are found to occur far more frequently when one counts the number of instances of verb nominalizations which are paired with "functional" verbs, i.e. verbs which are by and large not being used for lexical content, but rather functionally.

Example: Die Maschine wird zur Abschaltung gebracht.

Here "gebracht" serves less to convey the concrete meaning of carrying something than it does to perform a purely formal function within the sentence structure.

A Functional Verb Construction (FVC) consists of a Functional Verb (FV) and a noun (FN). The FVC often contains a prepositional phrase.

A. Characteristics of FVCs

1. The concrete meaning of the complete verb (kommen, setzen, bringen) has been largely supplanted.
2. FV + FN is commutable with verbs from the stem of the FN. (in Erstaunen geraten = staunen)
3. FV is commutable to a limited degree (zu Ende bringen/führen
4. In a main clause, the FN always stands at the end.
5. In a subordinate clause, the FN always stands directly in front of the infinitive.

B. FVCs by Frequency of Occurrence

1. zur Verfügung stellen
2. zur Verfügung stehen
3. zum Ausdruck kommen
4. in Frage kommen
5. Bedeutung zukommen
6. Gebrauch machen
7. eine Rolle spielen
8. zugrunde liegen

C. FV by Frequency of Occurrence

1. kommen
2. stehen
3. stellen

D. Preferred Prepositions in this construction are "in" and "zu"

IV. Extended Modifiers, Placed Before and After the Noun

In these noun phrases, the substantive is referred to as the "Reference Word," the first attribute as the "Core," which may then be modified by further attributes of the second to the fifth degree.

A. Attributes following the noun.
Example: "Ansätze zu einer Theorie des optimalen Wachstums..."

1. Genitive attributes and prepositional phrases make up the vast majority of such attributes.
2. Degree of Complexity and Frequency

a. "Core" alone	42%
b. Attributes of the second degree	43%
c. of the third degree	11%
d. of the fourth degree	3%

B. Attributes Before the Noun
Example: "Der voll haftende Gesellschafter..."

1. Type and Frequency of the "Core"

a. Past participle	52%
b. Present participle	32%
c. Adjective	16%

2. Type of Expansion by Frequency
    - a. Prepositional
      "die durch die Gründung bedingten Gebühren"
    - b. Adverbial
      "die dauernd wachsenden Aufwendungen"
    - c. Accusative
      "mit einem die durchschnittliche Arbeitszeit darstellenden System"
    - d. Dative
      "so muß die Bank entsprechend ihren dem Kunden mitgeteilten Vorschlägen stimmen"
3. Degree of Complexity and Frequency of Attributes

a. "Core" alone	42%
b. Attributes of the second degree	44%
c. of the third degree	10%
d. of the fourth degree	4%

V. Semantic Problem Areas of Particular Importance

A. Ambiguity in the Interpretation of Extended Modifier Constructions

Extended modifiers can make for tighter construction and can create pregnant expressions, but not infrequently at the cost of ambiguity in the interpretation. Ambiguities which can result from different combinations of the Reference Word with its attributes can often only be overcome by the reader's own knowledge of the field or by the context of the statement.

Example: "Diese Industrie umfaßt hauptsächlich auf Kapital aufgebaute Betriebe."

Diese Industrie umfaßt Betriebe, die hauptsächlich auf Kapital aufgebaut sind.

OR

Diese Industrie umfaßt hauptsächlich Betriebe, die auf Kapital aufgebaut sind.

B. Ambiguity in the Interpretation of Modal Verbs

Example: " Die Japaner haben vorexerziert, daß eine gezielte, befristete Gemeinschaftsforschung mehrerer Unternhemen nicht zu einer Aushöhlung des Wettbewerbs führen muß."

C. Use of the Subjunctive

1. Subjunctive I
    - a. Expression of a wish or direction ("Man nehme...")
    - b. Mark of indirect discourse
      Repetition of that which is repeated without taking responsibility for the accuracy of the information being repeated, i.e. objective reproduction.
2. Subjunctive II
    - a. Expression of condition contrary to fact.
    - b. Substitute for ambiguous forms of Subjunctive I in indirect discourse, i.e. objective reproduction.
    - c. As an expression of doubt of skepticism about something which is being reported from another source, i.e. subjective reproduction.

Thus, the de Cort/Hessmann study describes for us, in far greater detail than had heretofore been the case, the most important grammatical, syntactic and semantic characteristics of written business German language, and, at the same time, defines for us those areas which are most in need of attention in teaching our students. As was already mentioned in the introduction to this paper, business German materials which are presently available not only make little or no use of such linguistic research, but virtually ignore the issue of didacticization of these important grammatical, syntactical, and semantic features. We are left, therefore, to devise our own methods of didacticizing these characteristics of business German.

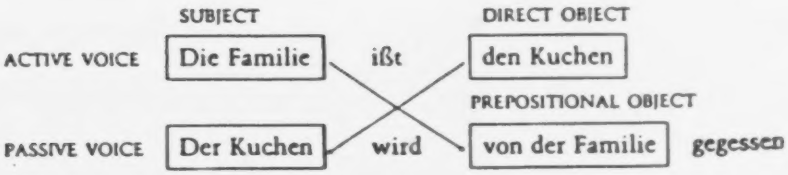
The task of devising our own methods is, however, complicated by the fact that our students, for the most part, will have had very little, if any, introduction to these concepts before entering our classrooms, and the encounters they may have had will, more than likely, be negative ones. A cursory look at six[5] of the most commonly used introductory college German textbooks revealed, not surprisingly, the following interesting facts: (1) the passive voice and the so-called "passive substitutes," as well as the subjunctive I (if the latter was treated at all) were left to the last two chapters of these textbooks, (2) none of the textbooks discussed verb nominalization, and (3) only one presented a somewhat sketchy explanation of extended modifier constructions. In the sequencing common to American language pedagogy, all of the characteristics of business language fall within the realm of the "most difficult concepts" and are, therefore, left to the end of the textbooks, if they are treated at all. This has always puzzled me a bit with reference, particularly, to the passive voice, since its formation really is highly regular in German and no more or less difficult to learn to use than the active voice. Placing these concepts at the end of the textbooks may be more or less justifiable on the basis of difficulty, but we all know what happens to those items which are left to the end of the text—in the end-of-the-year rush they get minimal attention and may even be dropped from the syllabus by harried teachers who, proverbially, bit off more than could be chewed.

Well, perhaps these things are too difficult for even an introductory level explanation to the average first year student; these items may, indeed, be better handled in the second year. But, those of us who have had experience with teaching business German are not surprized at what a cursory look at six[6] of the most commonly used intermediate college level German textbooks reveals. Once again, even on the second year level, where there would seem to be less necessity to follow that old prescribed sequencing of the grammar, we are confronted with a situation analogous to what we saw on the introductory level. Of the six texts, five of them present the passive and subjunctive I within the last three chapters of the text, two of them do not introduce extended modifiers at all, and two of them leave discussion of extended modifiers until the last two pages of the text, where it is unconnected to anything else and can very conveniently be eliminated. Thus, even third year level German students probably do not have the proper foundation for studying those aspects of German grammar and syntax which are characteristic of business German.

Such students may well have inordinate and unexpected difficulties with exercises based on the important grammatical and syntactical characteristics of business German for three reasons. Firstly, they may have had no previous experience with the concepts at all; secondly, if they had previous experience, it was probably hurried. Thirdly, let me discuss a phenomenon which I will label "passive resistance." The phenomenon occurs when the word "passive" is even uttered in the classroom; students begin to sigh heavily and turn off mentally. The same phenomenon takes place when one attempts to work with the subjunctive. Why should students have such a prejudice against these concepts? I have come to the conclusion that this may partially be the result of negative carry-over from poorly taught English grammar classes, as well as the result of the way these concepts are introduced in introductory and intermediate German classes. Students do not necessarily sigh about, for example, the German verb tenses, or adjectival nouns, or even prepositions. Nevertheless, prepositional usage, to name but one example, is a far more complicated issue in German than is the passive voice. They sigh about the passive voice because both their textbooks and their previous instructors have frequently led them to believe that it is a very difficult concept which, on the one hand, they will have trouble mastering, and, on the other hand, is rare---they probably won't use it anyway. It should also be noted that such devices as the passive voice and extended modifiers are often considered the hallmark of "poor style" within the parameters of the traditional "creative writing"/"Alltagssprache" approach of both our textbooks and our teaching methods. These students are discouraged from writing very long and complicated sentences, from using the passive voice and extended modifiers, and are told that the subjunctive I is superfluous, since most speakers use the subjunctive II, even for indirect discourse. In addition, the methodologies for introducing these concepts in the textbooks, should the student actually receive such an introduction, are often confused and misleading in themselves, which compounds our problems in the business German classroom.

As an example of the often misleading and confusing information offered by our introductory and intermediate textbooks, I would like to take a closer look at the typical treatment of the passive voice. It is common for American textbook authors to begin their explanation of the passive voice with a short introduction which may or may not include a word about the usage of the passive voice. Rather typical of such introductions is the opening passage on the passive from Deutsche Sprache und Landeskunde, which reads as follows:

> **Passive Voice**
>
> Most sentences are in the *active voice*, which means that the subject performs the action or is the topic of the sentence. In the *passive voice*, the subject plays a passive rather than an active role. The subject is not the agent of the action but is acted upon by an agent that is introduced in a prepositional phrase with **von** or **durch**. **Von** is followed by the dative case and indicates the person or thing that causes the action; **durch** is followed by the accusative case and indicates the means of carrying out the action....



> In both English and German, the active voice is used more frequently than the passive voice and is generally preferred, especially in speaking. It is simply a more direct way of saying who is doing what. The passive voice is used to emphasize the person or thing toward whom the action is directed, rather than the initiator of the action. It occurs more often in writing than speaking.[7]

Thus, the student is to make the following assumptions regarding the passive voice: (1) the subject of an active voice sentence is "active", whereas the subject of a passive voice sentence is "passive", whatever is to be understood by those two terms, (2) that there is a one-to-one correspondence between each active voice sentence and a passive voice counterpart, in which the prepositional phrase with "von" or "durch" introduces the personal agent or "means" respectively, (3) the active voice occurs more frequently and is preferred, (4) the active voice is a more "direct" way of expressing oneself, and (5) the passive voice should be used when one wishes to emphasize the person or thing toward which the action is directed; in other words, the choice of active or passive should be made on the basis of emphasis. This jumble of misinformation is the foundation for the understanding of the passive which most of our students bring into the business German classroom.

This typical introduction to the passive reveals not only the authors' bias in favor of spoken "Alltagssprache" but also, at the same time, a lack of sophistication regarding the function and usage of the passive voice, which may reflect the authors' unfamiliarity with recent linguistic research, where the passive voice is a much discussed and disputed category. The linguists' discussions begin with the very essence of the question, i.e. what is "passive" and what is "active?" What exactly do these terms mean? Are these terms even adequate to express the difference between these two voices? What are the criteria for choosing the active or passive voice? Is it a matter of emphasis? Is the passive voice to be considered some kind of a transformational mirror image of the active voice? Does the emphasis really change to the object of the action in such a transformation? Judging by the size of bibliographies[8] dealing with the passive voice debate, these questions are not as simple as they may seem on the surface. Yet, our textbook authors confine themselves to very traditional, rigidly defined explanations of the concept, explanations which do a particular disservice to those students who will go on to study scientific, technical, and business German. For, after only a brief encounter with materials from the real world, these students will encounter a totally different situation than they were led to believe existed. A number of conditions will confront them: (1) they will find the passive voice appearing far more frequently than they were led to believe, (2) they will perceive that the passive is not simply a weak step child of the active voice which is to be avoided in favor of the active voice, (3) they will discover that there is often no one-to-one correspondence relationship between the active and passive voice; most passive sentences, indeed, occur without the prepositional phrase expression of the agent, (4) their attempts to generate passive voice sentences according to the transformational pattern will often yield incoherent sentences based upon intransitive, reflexive, or other verbs which cannot form the passive, and (5) they will learn that, due to the mutability of German word order, the so-called emphasis on the objective is not a particularly good criterion for the choice of the passive over the active voice. As a matter of fact, as we have seen from the deCort/Hessmann study, the passive will occur twice as frequently in business German as in the everyday language and it will occur 75% of the time with no prepositional phrase to express the agent. Furthermore, I have always been bothered by the description of the passive voice as a transformation of an active voice sentence, in which the emphasis is supposedly placed on the objective by bringing it to the front of the sentence and making it "the subject of the sentence." This description would seem to be a derivation from transformational/generative grammar approaches, on the one hand, and an interference from English word order patterns on the other. If word order in German were as strictly tied to the SVO pattern as it is in English, then perhaps one might be justified in seeing a transformation of active to passive as basically a matter of change of emphasis, but those who argue from this direction seem to have forgotten about the incredible flexibility of German word order. In German, the subject of a passive sentence is no more likely to be in first--hence, emphasized--position than is the subject of an active sentence. As was suggested by the deCort/Hessmann study, in business German prepositional phrases and other adverbials occur in first position almost as often as does the subject. Indeed, it has been suggested that word order in written German has less to do with emphasis than with smooth transition from thought to thought, sentence to sentence, paragraph to paragraph. An example, with an appropriate passive voice sentence word order inversion follows:

> Während zwischen 1901 und 1944 insgesamt 34 Deutsche die höchste Ehrung für geistige Glanztaten empfingen, befanden sich von 1945 bis 1981 nur noch zwölf unter den Auserwählten. In der gleichen Zeit wurden aber immerhin 32 Engländer und 101 Amerikaner ausgezeichnet.
>
> Gedeihen kann Amerikas Spitzenforschung vor allem in der stimulierenden Atmosphäre jener angesehenen, meist von privaten Sitftungen getragenen Elite-Universitäten...[9]

Here it is particularly obvious that word order selection has been made on the basis of continuity of thought, and not upon any mechanical process by which the "object of the active sentence is put into the nominative case and brought to the front of the sentence." This criterion of continuity holds whether the author has chosen the active or passive voice.

Therefore, we must insure that our students reconsider their previous conceptions about the use and function of the passive voice. As de Cort and Hessmann, in agreement with other more prominent linguists, put it :

> Die Welt im Passiv ist nicht eine passive Welt...sie ist vielmehr eine Welt, die einen Täter nicht namhaft machen will, sondern die Geschehnisse täterabgewandt begreifen will. Wenn vom Agens abgesehen wird, rückt das durch das Verb ausgedrückte Geschehn naturgemäß mehr in den Mittelpunkt. Da letzteres gerade für wissenschaftliche und fachliche Texte typisch ist—es werden Fakten und Entwicklungen festgestellt, wobei der Urheber in den Hintergrund tritt--,kann es nicht wunder nehmen, daß gerade in solchen Texten passivsche Formulierungen bevorzugt werden...[10]

Thus, the passive voice is merely a method by which an author can discuss facts and developments where an agent is often of secondary importance and frequently remains nameless. The "von" and "durch" constructions are rarely necessary.

These insights into the use of the passive voice offer a valuable starting point for the development of a methodology for teaching the passive voice to students of business German. Firstly, in deciding whether to use the active or passive voice in their own developing expository style, students can be taught to use the criterion, that if the expression of an agent is absolutely necessary in the communication of their idea, the passive voice may not be the most appropriate choice. In addition, the word order of the passive sentence, as is the case with the active sentence, should be taught as a matter of thought transition, not necessarily as a matter of "emphasis." The matter of which verbs are most appropriately used in the passive voice should probably be taught by reference to model sentences in the materials being used--i.e. students should be aware of what verbs are being used passively and build their own sentence models only from those verbs. This technique will help the students avoid using verbs which create special problems or are incorrect or inappropriate for the passive voice.

such as intransitives and reflexives. It should also not be forgotten that , as pointed out in the deCort/Hessmann Study, in almost 40% of the instances of occurrence of the passive in business German, the passive is formed with a modal auxiliary, a complication which is treated only superficially, if at all, in students' earlier encounters with the passive.

The lack of attention to characteristics of the language which are of particular importance for gaining proficiency in business German is also apparent in the textbooks' introduction to a related topic, i.e. the so-called "passive substitutes." While most of the introductory and intermediate level textbooks do devote a page or two to "man" constructions, "sein/haben + zu" + infinitive and "sich lassen," many totally disregard the far more commonly occurring reflexive verb constructions, and all of the texts treat these constructions as "ways to avoid the passive voice," a rather dubious description. My students have always seemed to be confused by both the formation and use of these constructions. The confusion may stem, to a large extent, from the way in which the constructions are introduced to them, in a vacuum, out of the context of the more technical, scientific areas in which they make perfect sense. These constructions are far more aptly described, as is the passive voice itself, as ways of writing about facts, developments, and processes in which the agent is relatively insignificant. But, the proper presentation of such a description would presuppose that one would lay aside the biases against non-literary materials and present the constructions in a positive light as viable and commonly used stylistic alternatives in expository prose.

Exactly the same can, of course, be said for the treatment of the quotative subjunctive. Major problems in developing an appropriate methodology for the quotative subjunctive in the business German classroom stem not only from the fact that the so-called "special subjunctive" is often overlooked in elementary textbooks, but also from the fact that it is treated, in intermediate textbooks and beyond, as an infrequently occurring and rather elevated style which is normally avoided in everyday conversation. While this is certainly true, the lack of attention to those instances where the special subjunctive is an extremely common occurrence reflects, once again, a bias on the part of the textbook authors in favor of the "Alltagssprache." The description of the use of the quotative subjunctive also almost always comes from the perspective of "indirect statements, questions, and commands" which are described as occurring with introductory phrases. Example: "Er sagte, er könnte nicht mitkommen." Such a description is obviously also borrowed from spoken German. The student, therefore, receives little or no practice with the quotative subjunctive as it appears in expository prose, where an introductory clause may or may not appear, and, if it does, it may appear only once at the very beginning of a long and complicated paragraph. In addition, the choice of indicative, subjunctive I or subjunctive II by the author of an expository text can reflect extremely important subtle nuances, which the deCort/Hessmann study identifies as the source of possible semantic problems which can occur more frequently in business German.

An excellent example of the use of the quotative subjunctive in business German occurs in one of the Goethe Institut packets, where the quotative subjunctive itself is, of course, not the object of didacticization:

> **IW-Studie: Stabilität überwiegend hausgemacht**
>
> **München** (SZ) - Die Eindämmung des Verbraucherpreisanstiegs während der letzten Jahre ist vor allem ein gemeinsamer Erfolg der Finanz- Geld- und Lohnpolitik. Erst in jüngster Zeit sind die Wirkungen des hausgemachten Stabilitätskurses durch sinkende Einfuhrpreise verstärkt worden. Zu diesem Ergebnis kommt das *Institut der deutschen Wirtschaft (IW) Köln* in einer Analyse der Verbraucherpreisentwicklung.
>
> Der Mittelfristige Vergleich zeige, daß der größte Teil des Weges zu stabilen Verbraucherpreisen durch hausgemachte Faktoren geebnet wurde: Der Abbau des Preisanstiegs von 5,3% (1982) auf 2,2% (1985) war nur zu einem Zehntel durch preisgünstigere Einkäufe im Ausland erfolgt. Für die übrigen neun Zehntel hätten Bundesregierung, Bundesbank und die Tarifpartner durch Sparsamkeit und Zurückhaltung gesorgt, meint das Institut. Besonders deutlich werde die hausgemachte Stabilisierung bei den *Arbeitskosten*, deren Dynamik zwischen 1983 und 1985 um 1,8 Prozentpunkte zurückgeführt worden sei...[11]

Here, we not only have the quotative subjunctive being used without obvious introductory clauses, in contradiction to the typical introduction to the special subjunctive, but we also have an alternation between the indicative and special/general subjunctive, which may indicate subtle nuances or, more likely, the interference of the writer's everyday speech habits. This passage, indeed, makes an excellent teaching device for the use of the German quotative subjunctive itself, if the passage is approached from the standpoint of comparison/contrast with the practices which elevated expository prose style requires.

With respect to teaching devices for the business German classroom, I would like to consider one final area, that of extended modifiers. This is another area which is often treated in a confused and confusing manner in our textbooks. The confusion in the minds of the students often stems, I feel, from a transformational approach in textbooks which links the extended modifier to relative clauses, a highly complicated transformation often beyond the most grammatically astute of our students at this level. Even though these constructions may be considered "poor style" by traditionalists who are biased in favor of "creative writing" approaches to composition, we who deal with business German know that it is extremely important that our students learn to deal effectively with these constructions because of the incredible frequency with which they occur in business and technical German. I have not found it particularly effective to deal with extended modifiers as transformed relative clauses; it seems to unduly confuse the students. An approach which first explains extended modifiers according to the deCort/Hessmann classification into "Kern" and degree and type of modification and then goes on to an exercise in which the students identify the variations of the pattern in a business German text seems to be the most effective.

In conclusion, I hope to have focused our attentions more closely on three major areas of concern:

(1) the need for more research in the area of linguistic description of business German,

(2) the problems for the average American student of business German created by the traditional "creative writing/ Alltagssprache" oriented approaches of most of our textbooks, and

(3) the need for the development of appropriate methodologies for the didacticization of the most important grammatical and syntactic features of business German.

ENDNOTES

[1] J. deCort and P. Hessmann, "Die wissenschaftliche Fachsprache der Wirtschaft. Eine Untersuchung ihrer syntaktischen und syntaktisch-lexikalischen Merkmale," Linguistica Antverpiensia, Vol. XI, (1977), p 27.

[2] The deCort/Hessmann study continued in two subsequent volumes of the Linguistica Antverpiensia, Vol. XII (1978), pp. 233-260, and Vol. XIII (1979), pp. 56-102.

[3] de Cort, XI, pp. 28-29.

[4] de Cort, XI, p. 30.

[5] The six first year texts are: (1) Clausing and Rings, Deutsch Natürlich, (Houghton Mifflin); (2) Moeller and Liedloff, Deutsch Heute: Grundstufe, (Houghton Mifflin);(3) Crean, et al. Deutsche Sprache und Landeskunde, (Random House); (4) Haas and Mathieu, Deutsch für Alle, (Wiley); (5) Sevin, Sevin and Bean, Wie geht's, (Holt, Rinehart); (6) Briggs and Crean, Alles Gute, (Random House).

[6] The six second year texts are: (1) Dippman, A Practical Review of German Grammar, (MacMillan); (2) Clausing, German Grammar: A Contrastive Approach, (Holt, Rinehart); (3) Helbling and Kempf, Deutsche Gegenwart, (Holt, Rinehart); (4) Moeller, et al, Kaleidoskop, (Houghton, Mifflin); (5) Bansleben, Perspektiven, (Holt, Rinehart); (6) Barrack and Rabura, Mosaik, (Random House).

[7] John E. Crean, et al., Sprache und Landeskunde (New York: Random House, 1985), p. 496

[8] Indicative of the scope of this debate is the bibliography to Gabriele Stein, Studies in the Function of the Passive, Tübinger Beiträge zur Linguistik, No. 97 (Tübingen: Gunter Narr Verlag, 1979). Stein's book is an excellent introduction to the questions concerning the nature and presentation of the passive voice broached in this paper.

[9] H. O. Eglau, "Der Wettlauf in die Zukunft" Wirtschaftswoche, 17. Sept. 1982, p. 61.

[10] deCort, XI, p. 68.

[11] Taken from the Goethe Institut Packet "Magisches Viereck," p. 13. Materialien zum Deutschunterricht, (New York: Goethe Institut, 1985). Quote is attributed to Süddeutsche Zeitung of 6.5.86

TRAINING THE MULTI-CULTURAL MANAGER

by

Vincent O'Neill
SIEMENS AG
West Germany

TRAINING THE MULTICULTURAL MANAGER

> "Culture includes all aspects of
> human life in so far **as determined**
> **and conditioned** by our membership
> in society. Society and language are
> **mutually indispensible** ... and human
> society in any form could be maintained
> only among people speaking and under-
> standing **a language in common use.**"
>
> (Sir Edward Burnett Tylor)

Tylor wrote these words 116 years ago (Primitive Culture, 1871), before the advent of multinational corporations, global markets or the information society as we know them today. The intervening time, however, has, as in the case of a good whisky, matured and enhanced their flavor to the point where they can be decanted and savored in regard to the modern business communications. The "**language in common use**" by the international business community is undoubtedly English. There are some 350 million mother tongue speakers, while in addition 70% of all radio broadcasts, 60% of world correspoondence and 90% of technical, scientific and business publications 1) are in English. In fact, one person in seven alive today understands or speaks English to some extent 2). International business depends to an increasing degree on English as a lingua franca.

Statistics unfortunately don't guarantee flawless communication, far less understanding. Society and language are two sides of the one coin, "**mutually indispensible**" for charting the seas of intercultural communication in business. The trouble is that this "one person in seven" may come from any of three major groups; those with English as their mother tongue (USA, GB, Australasia), those from bilingual or multilingual cultures (India, Africa, S.E.Asia), and those from cultures or societies where English is an acquired second language for educational or professional purposes (S.America, Europe, etc.). They're all using English as a communications tool, but tuning it to fit the wavelengths of their own cultural mentality, assumptions and values. The message is embedded in language and consists of a synergy between culture and language. The cultural relativity arising from this type of synergy tends to cause the headaches, since the subjective cultures, i.e. the way we think and act **as determined and conditioned** by our membership in a given culture, colors both simple expressions and extended communication interactions.

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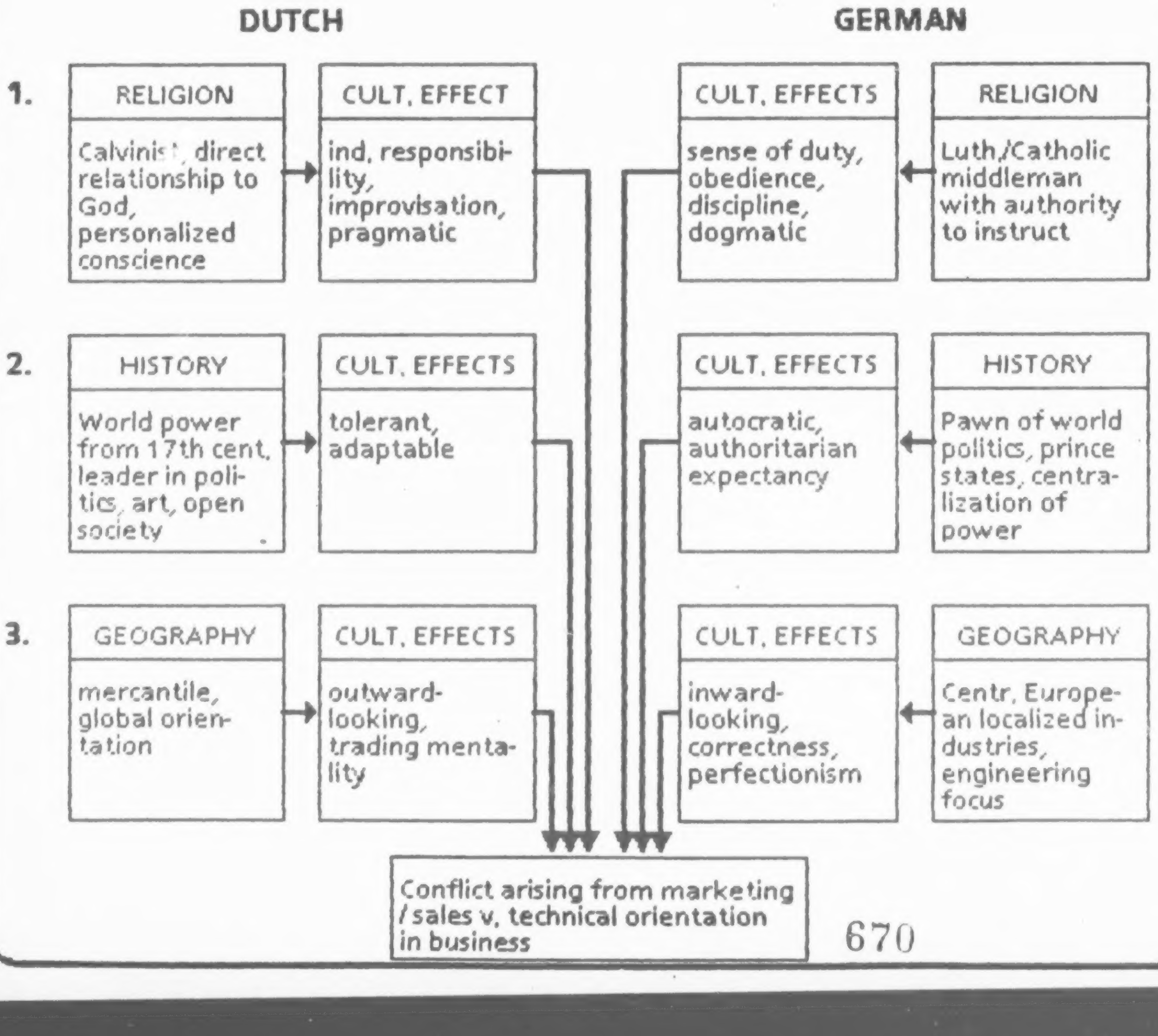
1) Quirk, A Grammar of Contemporary English, Longmann (1972), p. 4.

2) Encyclopedia Britannica, Micropedia Vol. 4 (1985), p. 500.

An example would be the word "frontier", which is defined in Roget's Theasaurus as "confines, bounds, boundary, border, limit, limitation, restriction". A Briton would immediately associate frontier with N. Ireland, i.e. a dividing line, whereas an American would think more of the frontier spirit. For a German on the other hand, the East-West German frontier (die Grenze) inevitably bring connotations like "the wall" or "orders to shoot" with it.

As a case in point regarding extended communication interactions, I'd like to cite a European company in the record, video cassette and CD disc branch. The company belonged 50 - 50 to a German electronics and a Dutch electronics corporation,. In 1985 the German company sold its share to the Dutch corporation since the two managements couldn't agree on business strategy, especially with regard to the US market. Strange, you might think. They're all Europeans, next-door neighbors, have similar languages. The root of the problem lay in mentality, determined and conditioned by cultural thinking, as can be seen in this diagram distilled from "Der Holländische Kaufmann", Th. Metz, Deutsch-Niederländische Handelskammer, den Haag 1963


DUTCH
GERMAN
1.
RELIGION
Calvinist, direct relationship to God, personalized conscience
CULT. EFFECT
ind. responsibility, improvisation, pragmatic
CULT. EFFECTS
sense of duty, obedience, discipline, dogmatic
RELIGION
Luth./Catholic middleman with authority to instruct
2.
HISTORY
World power from 17th cent. leader in politics, art, open society
CULT. EFFECTS
tolerant, adaptable
CULT. EFFECTS
autocratic, authoritarian expectancy
HISTORY
Pawn of world politics, prince states, centralization of power
3.
GEOGRAPHY
mercantile, global orientation
CULT. EFFECTS
outward-looking, trading mentality
CULT. EFFECTS
inward-looking, correctness, perfectionism
GEOGRAPHY
Centr. European localized industries, engineering focus
Conflict arising from marketing / sales v. technical orientation in business

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H. C. Triandis expressed the idea of cultural relativity as follows, "When we learn the language of a cultural group we learn part of its subjective culture, but there is more to subjective culture than mere language. People can be experts in the language of a cultural group yet have a limited understanding of its subjective culture".3)

Though it is true that there is more to culture than language, language still remains both the central data bank and distribution network of culture. The language remains a prime vehicle for communicating all the **essential cues** to "reading" and interpreting the mentality, assumptions, values, expectations and norms of a culture.

At this point you're ready to accuse me of oversimplifying, and you're right, since cultural relativity also applies to both other symbolic systems of communication such as body language and behavior patterns, and since a person's "mentality" is also shaped and influenced by his individual values, and, in the case of a businessman, by his corporate values.

We at Siemens AG had and have no wish to oversimplify, but rather to find a relatively simple mode of access to cultural data banks via **cue linguistics**. The interface we were initially concerned with was the US-German electronics business, since Siemens had begun moving more into the American market in the 70s and had increased its commitment markedly in the 80s. The result was an increasing number of business seminars with mixed groups of US and German nationals. The seminar language was and is English. American participants had the following to say, "They (the German nationals) spoke English, and normally they spoke it very well. But it didn't take one very long to realize that we were speaking English but we really were not communicating with one another ... . **We had problems understanding the German mentality, and I'm sure thay had problems understanding the American mentality**. We basically had a communications problem". Another American executive put it like this, "**You know, when I come away from a meeting With our (German) top management, I often ask myself what they wanted to say and whether they have really understood what I have been trying to say**".

The task we had then was to design a workshop to provide managers with fast access to the American cultural data bank via the cue language of American cultural mentality. The aim of such a workshop would be to create greater sensitivity in US-German business interactions and to provide a realistic basis for building on the strengths of both the American and the German culture, thereby achieving positive synergy. The basic question we asked ourselves was: how can we provide a framework that will enable our German managers to "pick up the cues" and at the same time do better than just avoid miscommunication? The framework should be valid for other cultural-business interfaces, too.

We came up with the following cornerstones of the workshop, which, incidentally, is called "Effective Communication with US Business Partners":

1. - The learning concept and methodological mix is a key element in the awareness process.
2. - The trainer role is basic to the sensitization process and has to be carefully delineated.
3. - The "cue language" is the pivotal point of the workshop.
4. - "Real life" has to be incorporated into the workshop.

We had no wish to denigrate the importance of behavior patterns or body language but felt that in the 5 days available to us **cue language** aspects of intercultural communication should be the central focus.

1. Learning Concept of Workshop

The Workshop takes a triple-track approach:

Track 1: Information, cognitive-processing track which claims right-side brain attention, though not necessarily in an exclusive way. This track covers the overview, film input, exploitation and to some extent evening program. The emphasis is clearly laid on analytical methodologies leading to understanding of

- What is different (values, assumptions, expectations)
- How it is different (forms of their expression)
- Why it is different (background / genesis)

Track 2: Cognitive-experiential track which takes analysis of communication styles (= language + body language + social convention, etiquette) as its starting point and uses modeling to move toward a feeling for the differences in communication styles (experiential). This applies to the gambit sessions * in the first place, but there is also a kind of osmosis with the exploitation periods where the trainer represents a linguistic model for American communication styles and works with participants on central communication cues. This means that trainers should consciously try to model the gambit areas of the day during the exploitations of video input (= proactive modeling reinforcement).

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* a term borrowed from chess to describe linguistic elements or "moves" in an overall communications strategy.

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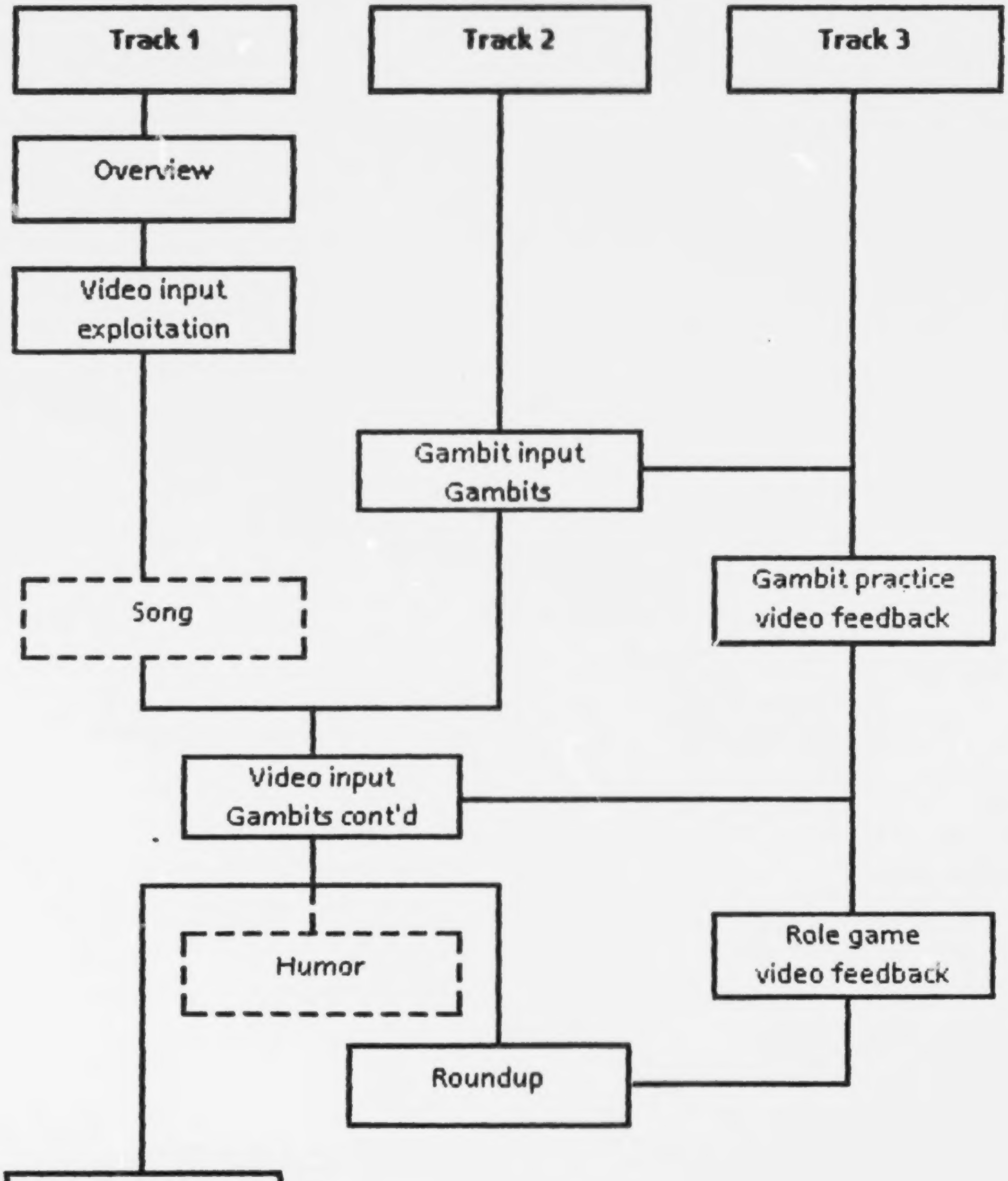
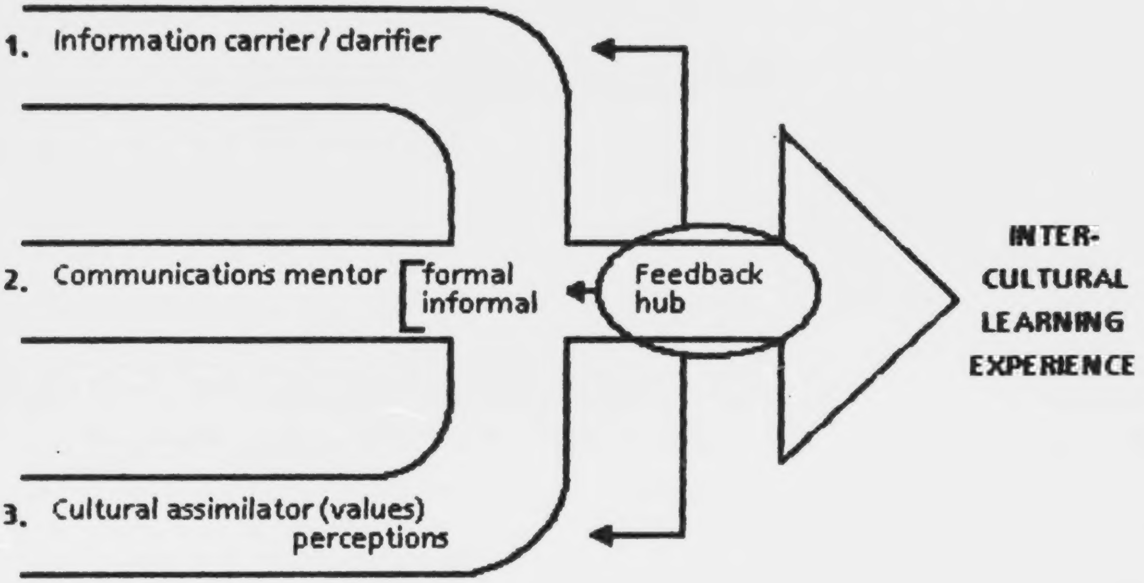
Track 3: Experiential learning + analysis track which comprises gambit practice, role game sessions, video feedback on both and roundup.

Participants should be advised by trainer to distil new learning from these experiences by writing it down in their Personal Planning Notes each day. It should be fairly clear that we move here to stress left-side brain, learning "through the gut", which should culminate with the participants' meeting with the American business partners.

When the overall theory is boiled down to block diagram form, it looks as follows:


Track 1
Track 2
Track 3
Overview
Video input exploitation
Gambit input Gambits
Song
Gambit practice video feedback
Video input Gambits cont'd
Humor
Role game video feedback
Roundup
Evening program

2. Role of Trainer


1. Information carrier / clarifier
2. Communications mentor
formal
informal
Feedback hub
3. Cultural assimilator (values) perceptions
INTER-CULTURAL LEARNING EXPERIENCE

Though the above diagram says everything about the trainer's role in the workshop, it's nevertheless important to make a cautionary remark before going any further. It is a serious mistake to try to transfer the "teaching mentality" from language courses en bloc, as it were, to the intercultural workshop. That doesn't work for the simple reason that the learning objectives are both different from and complementary to those of language courses. Let's spell them out in parallel tables:

Language course	**Intercultural workshop**
1. Structures are taught • K + P sheets *, grammar, lang. lab., grammar roundup	1. Structures are only touched on where important to communication
2. Functional language is taught and practised • Gambits, sit. prac., role game, feedback	2. Functional language is treated as constituting complete styles of communication and providing cues to value patterns

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[*] Daily "before and after" check on individual learning progress via Knowledge and Progress Sheets.

3. Vocabulary is treated directly + indirectly • Ep. summaries, explanations in group, memory cards	3. Vocabulary is taken as read, since the overall messages form the focal points, i.e. communication flow takes precedence over lexical dissection
4. Feedback is corrective of lapses in all above fields	4. Feedback moves between language and the deeper level of cultural appropriateness of communication
5. Intercultural themes are touched on but not dealt with in depth	5. The themes and the trainer join together to provide the Ps with genuine possibilities of a) insight into mentality / values b) cultural asssimilation c) communication skills d) style switching if desired
6. Linguistic modeling with moderate information level (e.g. Bid for Power) plays the central role	6. Information plays a more central role and modeling is more deliberate - developing from trainer modeling to American business guests as models
7. Better understanding, fewer mistakes and confidence / flexibility in using the language as communications tool are the final goals	7. Self-awareness and intercultural sensitivity are the final goals, together with the curiosity to find out more and the readiness to take a synergistic approach

Let's come back now to the trainer role diagram, and take the trainer as information carrier / clarifier and go into the skills required for this part of the role:

2.1 Personal v Cultural information carrier

The trainer has to keep in mind that he / she is performing a balancing act in several different senses

He / she has to be clearly aware where his / her own experience converges with and diverges from the value systems dealt with in the workshop, and what is even more essential, to learn to relativize his own personal experiences and views. If he / she cannot achieve this admittedly delicate balance, he / she creates a credibility gap in the participants which virtually destroys the value of the trainer as a) an authoritative source of information and b) a communications model, with catastrophic effects on both group dynamics and the learning process. Furthermore, he / she is the filter or interpreter for the participants and should therefore be objective rather than subjective in eliciting value patterns, assumptions, expectations etc. from both the workshop materials and the participants' experience of "Americans". He / she should always point out that cultural value patterns are deep-seated, constant over long periods of time, rooted in historical developments, geographical circumstances, and "spiritual" movements in the widest sense (i.e. religious, philosophy, educational priorities etc.). So it's essential for the trainer to know himself / herself well enough to abstract from his / her individual convictions.

- Once the basis of cultural values has been established, the trainer has to be skillful enough to point out the factors that cause deviation. These can be:

  - personal experience, eg. family values, part of the country
  - situational factors, eg. social role perception
  - educational level
  - Communications media available, eg. phone, face-to-face
  - language familiarity, skill level
  - contact with other cultures, eg. assignment in South America

To conclude, the information should be accurate and related, together with acceptable explanation of deviations, to the major and minor values of the workshop days as they now follow.

	Day One	Day Two	Day Three	Day Four	Day Five
Overall Theme	COMMUNICATION	VALUES	INFORMATION	PERCEPTIONS	SYNERGY
major values	Informality Equality Friendliness Directness	Optimism Individuality Action bias Initiative Risk-taking	Bottom line Be specific Time is money (urgency) Information	Achievement Excellence Pragmatism Opportunity Freedom	Innovation Change / Progress bias Networking Feedback
minor values	Neighborliness Self-reliance Self-assertion Competitveness	Pragmatism Can-do Competitiveness Control of future	Quantification Directness in communication + feedback Rational approach	Mobility Toughness Directness in decisions Business etiquette	Information

You'll notice that there is some overlapping, which doesn't do any harm, but also that we deal systematically with a collection of 20 values. These values correspond to what has been discovered about Americans and American culture in innumerable studies, interviews and field work.

2.2 Communications model

- This aspect of the trainer's role is somewhat more subtle - another way of saying complicated. The trainer has to communicate naturally, but at the same time get out of his skin to monitor his own input. The awareness of one's own interaction shadow can be uncomfortable.

It's all very well to tell trainers just to be themselves as an American, but that does not alleviate their underlieing insecurity in the training situation. The trouble is that this type of communications analysis is still relatively new, so there is little research on the subject. The other trouble is that we are committed to the thesis language + culture = communication, so we can't get around the L1 and L2 * approach to gambits, role game and feedback, nor do we want to. I concede that it's not easy, but not that it's not possible. So how can the trainer get geared up for it? The first step would be to reflect on and work out one's own communicaton style(s) in the situations we deal with in the workshop and to get clear what is "American" and what is peculiarly individual. The next step is to study the workshop materials from a communication styles point of view and to test these mentally against the experience of family, friends, acquaintances etc. Here it's worth pointing out that the fact that trainers have never negotiated a contract on behalf of Siemens AG does not disqualify them on American language functions and communication styles for negotiations. They've negotiated buying a car, hire purchase, renting a house, so they actually have the experience - they just haven't worked it out yet systematically into hard sell, soft sell, blocking, compromising etc. The most fruitful approach I've found for myself is applying 2 questions to everything:

1. What does X mean? = L1
2. What does he mean by X? = L2

2.3 Trainer as Cultural Simulator

This is likewise a tricky area, but it ties in relatively simply with everything said so far. If I might crystallize it in question form once again, it would be:

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* L1 = what is said (or done)
L2 = what is intended, communicated, understood

Is that how an American would feel?
(values, norms, expectations)
Is that how an American would see it?
(perceptions, categories, assumptions)
Is that how an American would put it?
(communication styles)

Whereby the workshop uses the 3rd question as its springboard to increased cultural awareness and synergistic communication.
Of course, the fly in the ointment is how you conceive "an American", but we've already narrowed that down to a range of values, a limited number of communication styles, and a finite body of information. This does not preclude surprises, or the wish of participants to go into a value area we do not directly deal with, eg. religious beliefs and their role in American culture. The cultural assimilator approach has, of course, been very well dealt with and developed by R. Brislin et al. [4].

3. "Cue Language" as Workshop Pivot

The overall aim is to imbue the participant with an increased awareness of

- American communication styles,
- their mainline modes of expression,
- their genesis in value patterns,
- and how they operate as communication cues.

and this in order to ensure that the German manager has his antenna properly tuned and adjusted to react to the myriad of cues he is presented with in intercultural interaction with his American colleagues in both business and social contexts. The communication styles dealt with relate directly to the US value patterns covered in the workshop, such as, for instance, American informality, which many Germans find difficult to react to. Of course, this necessarily involves a contrastive approach, since grasping a different mentality is virtually impossible without reflexion on one's own. The following diagram illustrates the difference from a purely cognitive point of view.

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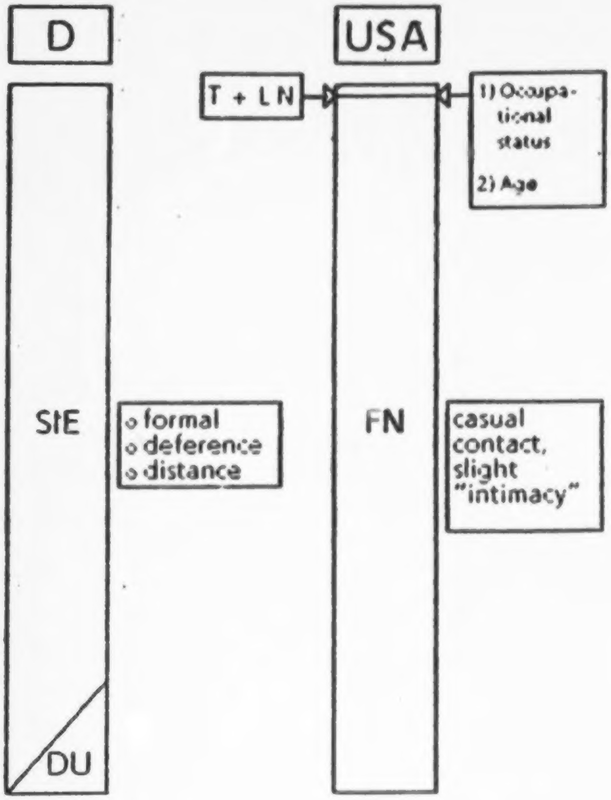
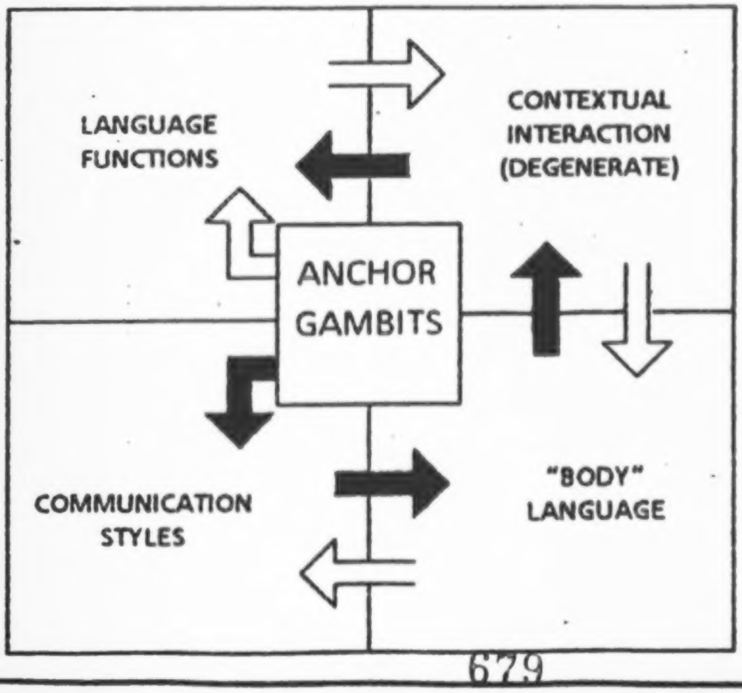
[4] Intercultural Interactions, Vol. 9, Cross-cultural Research and Methodology Series, Sage Publications (1986)


D
USA
T + LN
1) Occupational status
2) Age
SIE
o formal
o deference
o distance
FN
casual contact, slight "intimacy"
DU

Sie / du v. First Names

Processing, practising and sensitizing to the cue language and what it communicates forms the pragmatic touchstone of the workshop.


LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS
CONTEXTUAL INTERACTION (DEGENERATE)
ANCHOR GAMBITS
COMMUNICATION STYLES
"BODY" LANGUAGE

As far as formal training approaches and methodologies are concerned, there are two basic routes the trainer can take, a choice which will very often depend on the linguistic skills level of his / her group. The first route starts out from the **ANCHOR GAMBITS** and progresses then to alternative ways of communicating the same thing, to the role of intonation, emphasis, intended message in coded form, through the markers of body language, posture etc. to finish up with a synthesis for one general communication style such as small talk, presentations, negotiating etc. As already mentioned, the group ability level will dictate both the pace and the number of steps to be covered. With a weak group, for instance, it might be imperative to go straight from **ANCHOR GAMBITS** to a simplified version of the communication style in question. The other route rolls the process back, starting with the communication style itself and working back to the **ANCHOR GAMBITS**. A good group is not only capable of dealing with this method, but also learns a lot because they are given the opportunity to both analyse and reflect while at the same time being equipped with absolutely safe gambits for situations where they either cannot anticipate or cannot clearly read the communications signals,

the preferred pedagogical method on the first route would clearly be

- Establishing level of passive awareness of anchor gambits
- Testing level of active use of anchor gambits
- Explaining function and sequence
- Transferring chunks of sequence through mini-exercises
- Building mini-exercises up to full sequences with spiralling approach
- Feedback as continuous accompaniment
- Analysis of skill level reached
- Preparation to use skill in role game situation

The second route implies a more flexible, but nonetheless, planned pedagogical strategy.

- Analysis of end effect of communication sequence ie. was the result the intended result on the part of both communicators or not?
- What were the main factors leading to this result?
- To what extent was the result reached by non-verbal communication, eg. eye contact, gestures, posture, distance, personal energy level, listening markers, head movements etc.?
- What was the language saying on the surface? What role did inflection, intonation, emphasis play?

- What was the meta-language like? Eg. ums of reservation or encouragement, pauses, sudden shifts from formal to informal level (with a purpose?), shift back to formal (offended?)
- What purpose did interruptions serve? (disruption, clarification?)

- Degenerate language refers to the "impure" language of everyday communications, whereby the rules are broken or bent to achieve communication, or where they are stuck to too literally in an effort to be clear, but in fact result in an unintended communication or miscommunication (in other words, there is an expectation of linguistic "degeneracy" in the partner, so he misconstrues overdone correctness). A few examples might be in place here.

A: Ask the driver what time we get to Scottsdale
B: Excuse me, can you tell me when we get to Scottsdale?
D: Don't worry, buddy, it's a big place. We're not gonna miss it.

The driver understood a request for information, but misunderstood the intended sense of **when.**

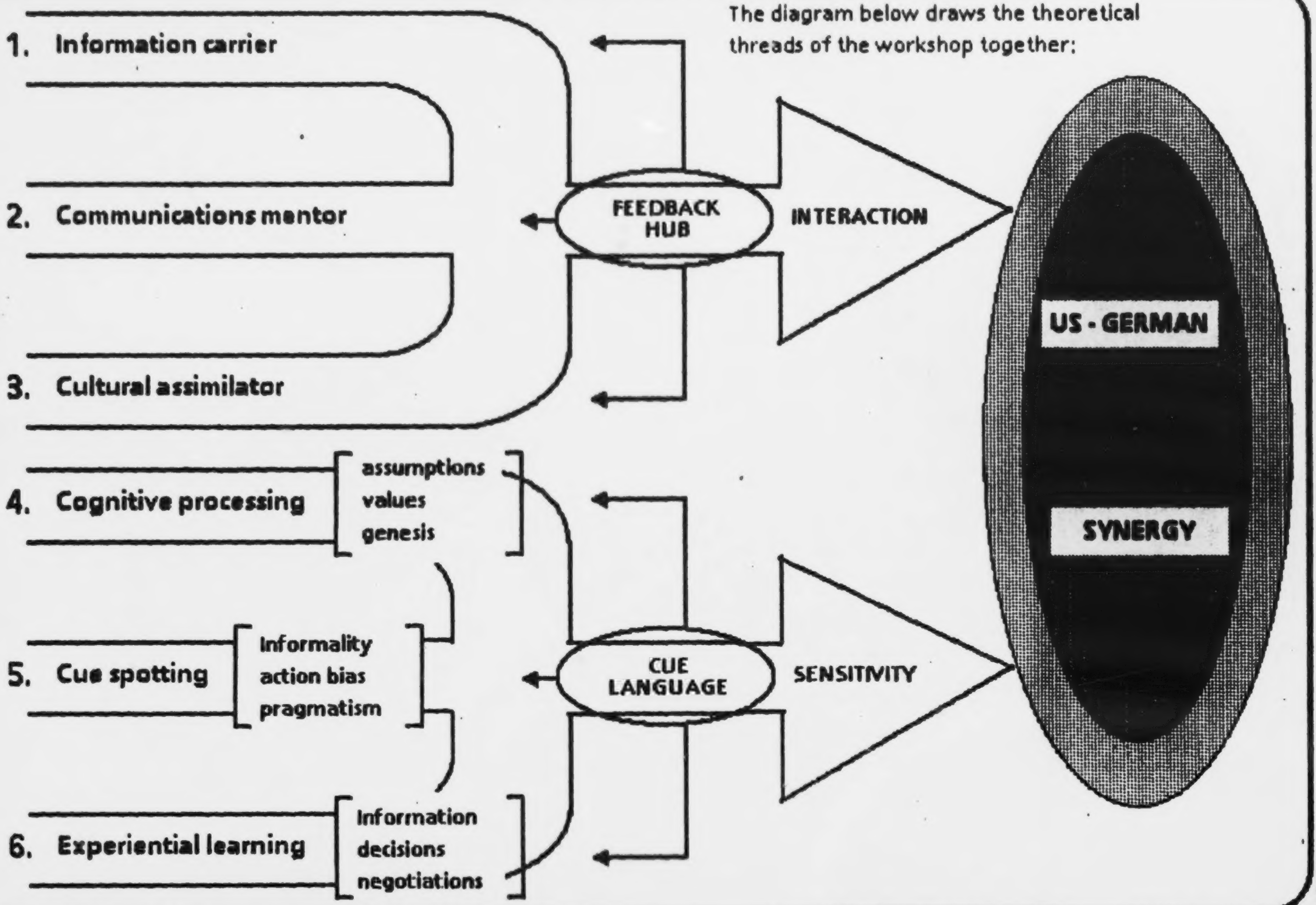
A: Is this coffee sugared? (intention = complaint)
B: I don't think so, does it taste like it is? (interpretation = genuine request, therefore no apology as **A** wishes)

A: I wonder if I might respectfully request you to refrain from flatulent manifestation (form = ultra- polite, intention = ultra-rude or at least completely out of order)

A: Have you brought the overheads?
B: Yes, I have brought the overheads.
Intention = clear answer
communication = annoyance at being asked.

These examples are adapted from "Cross-Cultural Pragmatic Failure", Jenny Thomas, 1983 where she distinguishes between the linguistic force of a communication (= language) and the pragmatic force (= cultural interpretation). This is especially important for feedback, where the trainer should differentiate between language feedback (= level 1, L1) and communications feedback (= level 2, L2). It is probably advisable to keep the 2 types of feedback separate, ie. running the video twice, each time from an entirely different perspective and concentrating in the second run on L2 with occasional reinforcement of L1 feedback where particularly crucial grammar, gambit, vocabulary issues have arisen.

The diagram below draws the theoretical threads of the workshop together:


1. Information carrier
2. Communications mentor
3. Cultural assimilator
4. Cognitive processing
assumptions
values
genesis
5. Cue spotting
Informality
action bias
pragmatism
6. Experiential learning
Information
decisions
negotiations
FEEDBACK HUB
INTERACTION
CUE LANGUAGE
SENSITIVITY
US - GERMAN
SYNERGY

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4. The "Real Life" Element

The participants in "Effective Communication with US Business Partners" are not expected to be in active command of all the communication styles relating to the some 20 main American values treated; and the aim is certainly not to implant a little "American" homunculus who can pop out of their mouths like a cuckoo at will. They should, however, be able to pick up the cues to the values, interests, expectations and assumptions being communicated by their American partners. More than this - they should be able to react adequately without abandoning their own culture, mentality or individuality. This is quite a tall order in 5 days, and, of course, as seminar veterans all know, the main problem with many seminars is that they very often have little to do with real life.

We felt that a theoretical seminar, though valid in its own right, was not enough for establishing a realistic basis for US-German synergy. With this in mind, we deliberately built in a 3-tier approach to the intercultural interactions of the workshop. (I should mention at this point that the number of participants is 16).

- The first tier is represented by the 4 trainers themselves, who are Americans with a lot of experience in both language and communications training together with experience of both the German language and mentality.
- The second tier consists of 4 "ordinary" Americans with virtually nil experience of Germans and their language. These "guests" carry the brunt of social interactions, modeling informality, small talk, direct and indirect question modes etc.
- The third tier comprises US businessmen, whose business experience has largely been gathered in the United States, and who are in Germany on short-term contracts either with European companies or as consultants. The framework for their interaction is a role game, "Venture Capital Adventure", whereby a US-German start-up company is to be formed to launch a new product on the American market. The businessman together with the trainer (= US Venture capitalist) form the US axis for sessions building up from "sounding out" to presentations, negotiations and reaching agreement, though agreement is not necessarily the outcome as has sometimes been the case.

The debriefing takes the shape of a "cultural audit" of the general and business values arising out of the 4-day role game. Video - and other - commentary and feedback is handled by a trio of trainer plus American guest (whether in the social or business category) and participant observer who comments from a German values and communication angle.

Perhaps, in conclusion, it might be useful to concretize the issue by detailing one day of the workshop, the day focussing on perceptions arising from differing expectation, assumption and value patterns and how they affect communications in negotiating situations. Just as it's fruitless to try to answer the question, "which animal has the sharpest vision?" - the chameleon has perfect tunnel vision for judging exactly how far the next fly is from the tip of its tongue, whereas the eagle can spot its prey at 5 kilometers - it's a waste of breathe to argue about the rights and wrongs of how an American or German businessman "sees" a negotiation, since both are zeroing in on the same situation with their - different - built-in cultural coordinators.

- Breakdown of Seminar Day

Time	Item	Methods / Materials	Objective
8.15 - 8.45	Overview	Overheads Albatross mine	Tone of the Day Track 1
8.45 - 9.30	Gordon White	Videofilm showing British view of Americans and American business	The foreigner applies his perceptual grid
9.30 - 10.15	Exploitation	• Hidden Differences sheet with German and American views of each other • Archeological game	To get to the root of stereotype thinking ie. a perception based on either a part of the whole, or a distortion of that Track 1
10.15 - 10.30	COFFEE		
10.30 - 11.00	Iacocca	American business perceptions as seen in Iacocca interview	To clarify attitudes, values operating in contrasting perceptions of reality
11.00 - 11.45	Comm. Styles (1)	Negotiation Gambits • Shopping mall game as mini-exercise introduction to Anchor Gambits	To firmly anchor how to agree, disagree, hedge, object etc. Track 2
11.45 - 12.00	Song		
12.00 - 12.45	Nuclear Site Negotiation	• Ps fill out Questionnaire X (previous evening) • They are allocated roles • 30 mins. time to negotiate a solution Videorecorded	Exercise in negotiations skills involving mind and emotions Track 3 Track 3
12.45	LUNCH		
14.00 - 14.30	Video Feedback	• Language feedback • Comm. feedback (observor sheet)	Track 3
14.30 - 15.00	Iacocca cont'd		
15.00 - 15.30	Exploitation	discussion with American guests	
15.30 - 15.45	COFFEE		

Time	Item	Methods / Materials	Objective
15.45 - 16.15	Humor	Hogan's Heroes	Stereotyping
16.15 - 16.45	Comm. Styles (2)	Gambit Review	
16.45 - 17.15	Role Game Prep.	Each company will prepare to explain its launch plans to potential American partner	Track 2
17.15 - 18.00	Role Game	Negotiate deal with American partner for American market	To test perceptions and communication flow with bona fide American business person Track 3
18.00 - 18.30	Roundup		
18.30	DINNER		
19.30 - 20.15	Video Feedback	with comment from American guest	Track 3
20.15 - 21.15	Evening program	This Week (video)	

Cue language refers to those communication styles and modes in a language which contain, formulate and convey the basic mentality of a cultural group together with its underpinning matrix of perceptions, cognitions, beliefs and emotions.

This approach to intercultural communication in international business has proved to be not only successful but also effective and efficient - a not unimportant business consideration for multinational corporations.

SIEMENS AG
ZSF 42
Paul Dine, Vincent O'Neill
Munich, April 1987

MASS MEDIA IN WEST GERMANY

and

Its Implications for Advertising Strategy

by

Michael A. Morehouse

and

David T. Cherian

Copyright 1987 Morehouse and Cherian

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This paper would not have been possible without the special contributions of Ms. Elke Wagner and Mr. Holger Windfuhr, both of Munich, Bavaria, Federal Republic of Germany.

Much information has been printed regarding mass media in West Germany. The purpose of this paper is to present some of this material, in addition to personal experience, in a manner which will enable American international marketing managers to more effectively market their products and services in West Germany. Past and present expenditures in print and electronic media are shown. Media stage of development, control by government, size, growth, audience exposure, and trends are given.

Advertising media have been separated into two categories; print and electronic media. Print media includes newspapers, magazines, and periodicals/journals. Electronic media is divided into television and radio. Growth/decline rates for each media type is graphed.

Regulation General

Advertising in West Germany is affected by governmental regulation. The constitution of the Federal Republic of Germany, the Basic Law, guarantees to all the "...right freely to express and disseminate opinion by speech, writing, and pictures..." and "...freely to inform himself from generally accessible sources."[1] It bans censorship. Advertisers have greater freedom of expression than in the United States. However, this doesn't mean that advertisers can make false or inflated product claims. The Federal Government provides consumers with product quality control through an independent agency, "Stiftung Warentest," which publishes product test

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results in the periodical Test. Another law which affects advertisers indirectly is the value added tax (VAT). This VAT of 14% is applied to advertising in all media. It is not specific to advertising, and U.S. advertisers are usually exempt for most advertising categories.[2]

Advertising & Research Guilds

In West Germany, advertisers can receive assistance from several specialty guilds. These guilds provide support in locating German marketing research firms and advertising professionals. Contacting these professional organizations can enable the astute marketer select the best medium for his/her products. Appendix I provides a list of names, addresses and specialties of these guilds. Heading the list is the name and address of the Federal Government's Central Council of Advertising Business. This council will inform the marketer of the laws and regulations impacting their advertising media selections.

Print Media

Size of market. The largest amount of advertising expenditure is, and has been, in print media. West Germans are voracious readers.Books and journals captured an average of 1.7% of all household expenditures for 2 and 4 person households in low to high income families in 1983-84. This is in contrast to 0.9% for TV, radio and audio for the same year.[3] In 1983, over 1,100 consumer magazines were in print.[4] Newspaper sales exceeded 21.2 million copies of dailies in 1982.[5]

Newspaper advertising expenditures continue to capture the largest percentage of all advertising expenditures. These have settled to approximately 40% of total media purchases. This is attributed to the fact that 75% of the West German populace reads a newspaper each day.[6] Figure 1 shows the percentage of advertising outlays from 1983 to 1985 for dailies and Sundays.

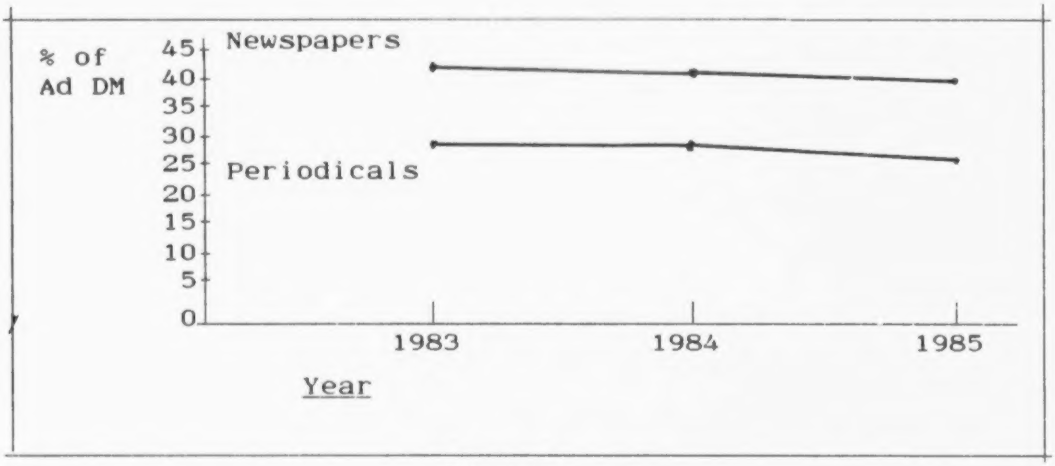

Figure 1

Periodical advertising expenditures hold second place in total advertising expenditures. Over 9,500 different periodicals are published in West Germany. Periodical circulation for the general public is approximately 86.5 million copies. Figure 1 also shows the percentage of advertising outlays for periodicals.

As with newspapers, periodicals are largely regional. Only four national interest magazines are published - Bunte, Neue Revue, Quick, and Stern. One national news magazine, Der Spiegel, is available. Thus, much adVertising can be tailored to tastes and target markets in each of the eleven states (Länder) that make up the Federal Republic of Germany. The periodical mix is extremely varied. The largest seller of copies is the ADAC motoring magazine with sales of 6.9 million copies in 1982. Political news, entertainment, housing, and membership journals exist with circulations as small as 250. These assorted periodicals are found throughout the states. The states and their citizens are highly autonomous, with specialized preferences and needs. Figure 2 shows the names and 1983 populations of each states, or better yet, marketing regions. The population is primarily urban, 86%, with a 1983 total population of 61,420,900. The large number of periodicals gives the marketer the opportunity to develop a highly specialized, cost effective, rifle approach for his/her products.

State	Population
1. Schleswig-Holstein	2,617,100
2. Hamburg	1,617,800
3. Niedersachsen	7,250,900
4. Bremen	682,400
5. West Berlin	1,860,500
6. Nordrhein-Westphalen	16,901,500
7. Hessen	5,584,100
8. Rheinland-Pfalz	3,632,600
9. Saarland	1,053,700
10. Baden-Würtemburg	9,256,100
11. Bayern	10,964,200
	61,420,900

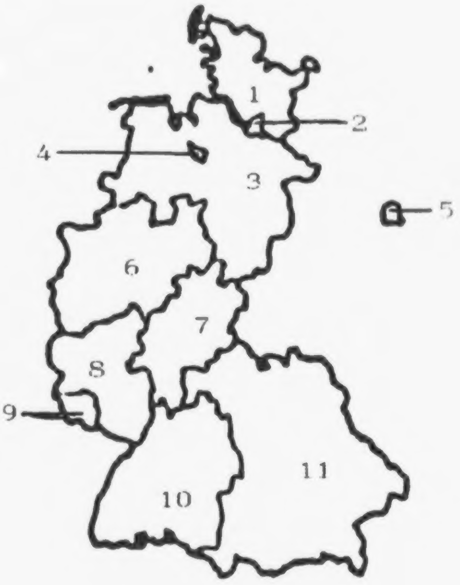

Figure 2

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Other print media is shown in Table 1. The percent of advertising expenditures received by each type is listed. These types of advertising allow for extremely narrow or wide targeting. According to Wirtschaftswoche, 84% of the West German citizens surveyed preferred and wanted to receive direct mail advertising.[7] There has been some negative response to direct mail, therefore the Federal Government is considering adopting measures to protect consumers from being placed on advertising lists.

Media Type	% of Expenditures per Year		
	1983	1984	1985
Direct Mail	11.9	11.7	11.9
Address Book	4.6	4.9	6.4
Outdoor	3.1	3.0	3.0

Table 1

Electronic Media

Government regulation and control have a major impact upon electronic media in West Germany. The three major networks - ARD (First German Television), ZDF (Second German Television), and 3. Programm (Third Program) are government owned. Regional television and radio exists, controlled by the state governments. Electronic broadcasting, in general, is dominated by public law corporations. Commercial broadcasting is still in its infancy, since it was only first allowed in 1981 by the Federal Constitutional Court. The public law corporations consist of nine radio/TV corporations (Landesrundfunkstalten), and two radio-only corporations, Deutschlandfunk and Deutsche Welle. The Landesrundfunkstalten are regulated by state laws. They are all members of the German Public Law Broadcasting Corporations (Arbeitsgemeinschaft der öffentlich-rechtlichen Rundfunkstalten Deutschlands - ARD).

Three main bodies are involved in the self-government of these media. The Broadcasting Council (Rundfunkrat and Fernsehrat - TV) is the "parliament" of each corporation.[8] The Administrative Council (Verwaltungsrat) decides the day-to-day management decisions for the corporation - it is the operating management board. The Director-General (Intendant) of each firm acts in the capacity of CEO. The Intendant controls program contents. Political influence from national and state governments can be exerted through appointments to the three governing bodies of each firm.

German national television is owned and controlled by the federal government. Advertisements are run in spots which are indicated in some daily program listings. A typical programming day begins between 9:00 and 10:00 AM and runs until between 12:30 and 1:00 AM. Programming content has changed somewhat in the last few years. Figure 3 shows the changes from 1976 to 1982 for ARD and ZDF. The programming mix is changing in response to societal changes and the introduction of privat television. Due to the nature of the public control, much programming resembles that found on public broadcasting networks in the U.S.

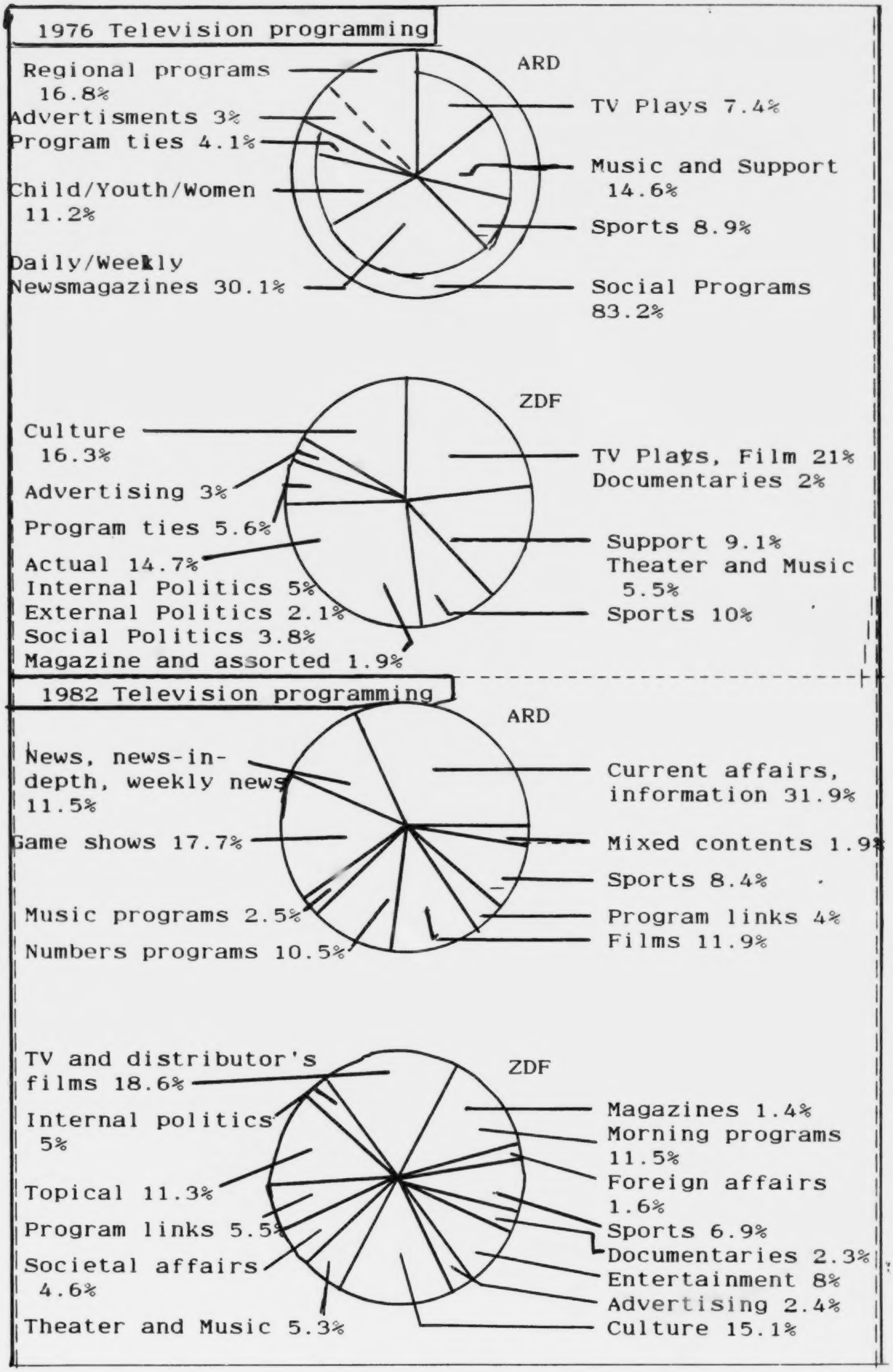
1976 Television programming
ARD
Regional programs 16.8%
Advertisments 3%
Program ties 4.1%
Child/Youth/Women 11.2%
Daily/Weekly Newsmagazines 30.1%
TV Plays 7.4%
Music and Support 14.6%
Sports 8.9%
Social Programs 83.2%
ZDF
Culture 16.3%
Advertising 3%
Program ties 5.6%
Actual 14.7%
Internal Politics 5%
External Politics 2.1%
Social Politics 3.8%
Magazine and assorted 1.9%
TV Plays, Film 21%
Documentaries 2%
Support 9.1%
Theater and Music 5.5%
Sports 10%
1982 Television programming
ARD
News, news-in-depth, weekly news 11.5%
Game shows 17.7%
Music programs 2.5%
Numbers programs 10.5%
Current affairs, information 31.9%
Mixed contents 1.9%
Sports 8.4%
Program links 4%
Films 11.9%
ZDF
TV and distributor's films 18.6%
Internal politics 5%
Topical 11.3%
Program links 5.5%
Societal affairs 4.6%
Theater and Music 5.3%
Magazines 1.4%
Morning programs 11.5%
Foreign affairs 1.6%
Sports 6.9%
Documentaries 2.3%
Entertainment 8%
Advertising 2.4%
Culture 15.1%

Figure 3

Only ARD and ZDF accept advertising. Between 6:00 and 8:00 PM, ARD turns over time to eight regional stations. Hence, advertising on ARD means contracting for air time with each of those regional stations. On both ZDF and ARD, sponsorship of programs doesn't occur. Competition for advertising time is intense, as all advertising time for the following year must be booked by September 30.[9]

Due to Germany's size and location, much overlapping occurs in the airwaves. Germans can receive both Swiss national and Austrian national TV1 and TV2. Also, growth developing in subscription/cable/satellite TV. The latter accept commercial time and are privately run. Program sponsorship is sold, with convient booking and rates by efficiency. To date, six such satellite exist - RTL Plus, SAT1, 3SAT, Eins Plus, Sky Channel and Super Channel. As of 1985, cable connection fees ran DM500 with converters costing DM350-400 or more.[10]

Television advertising expenditures trail those of the print media by a wide margin. Much of this is due to the government control. Figure 4 shows TV and radio advertising expenditures from 1983 to 1985 as a percentage of all advertising DM. All TV outlays were spent on ZDF and ARD(regionally). The advertising occurs in four blocks daily between 6:00 and 8:00 PM. Each block is approximately five minutes long. In 1982, advertising accounted for 22% of ARD and 42% of ZDF revenues.[11]

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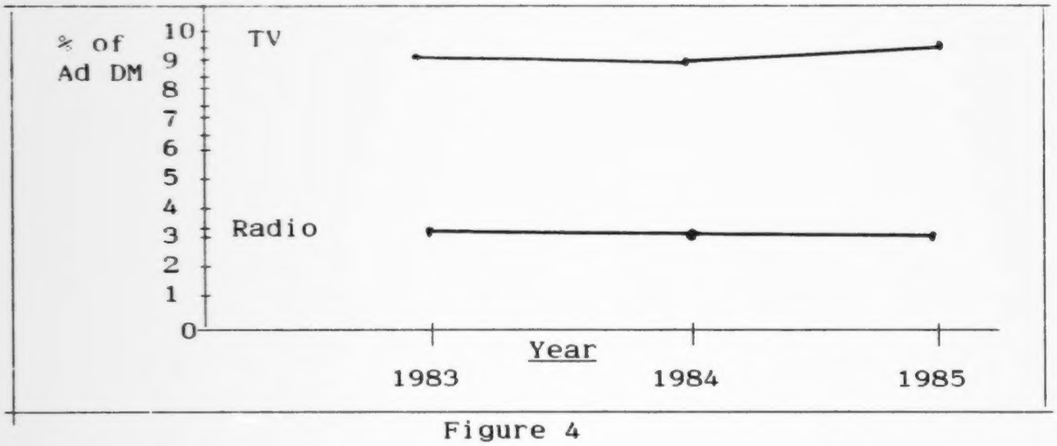

Figure 4

Radio advertising expenditures constitute the smallest percentage of outlay for the major media groups. Figure 4 represents a 0.1% decrease in outlays per year. These factors are partially attributable to the fact that Deutschlandfunk, the national radio corporation, accepts no advertising. Regional stations accept some advertising, depending upon which state the corporation is in. Private stations exist in most metropolitan areas and accept advertising and sponsorship.

German public law radio corporations have programs listed daily in the regional/local newspapers. Programming varies to include classical, folk and rock music, talk shows, news and regional interest programs. In 1982, there were 24.1 million registered radio listeners. These listeners must pay subscription fees.[12] Most of their operating funds are received from these fees.

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Forecasts and Implications for Advertising Strategy

New advertising mediums are being introduced that will impact the strategy of all international marketers buying advertising in West Germany. According to Professor Bruno Tietz of Saarbrücken, by 1995 Tele-Shopping, in the consumer's own living room, through TV, will capture 3.5% of the retail trade in West Germany.[13] Videotex (Bildschirmtext) was introduced in 1983. It accepts advertising. Costs are somewhat high, however as more households are added, costs will decrease. These media allow marketers to tailor advertising to subscribers.

Cable television will continue to grow. It should reach 20% of all households by 1990.[14] This will give advertisers tremendous impact (as opposed to the national/regional public law corporations). With the growth of cable, change in state regulations has evolved. Bavaria now favors commercial airtime for TV. Other states are sure to follow. This will give innovative advertisers the opportunity to reach more viewers. The private cable stations will allow advertising throughout the day, seven days a week. U.S. marketers, with their years of experience in producing quality commercials will have a definite advantage, should they choose to compete.

Direct advertising has potential for growth. Of the West German citizens polled, 84% want direct mail advertising.[15] Problems will continue to arise over personal data protection. Several groups intend to continue to push to protect citizens from "unwanted" advertising. This area will require close monitoring by firms choosing to use this media.

Print media will continue to be the dominant area for advertising competition. Newspapers will continue to be the medium where the largest, most developed market will be reached through advertising. One growth area will be in foreign newspapers, i.e. the Wall Street Journal or New York Times, papers which are read by West German business executives. International marketers will find more outlets for merchandising products to these affluent readers through these papers.

Periodicals will continue to hold their strong share of the advertising DM. The circulation base for magazines and journals is well established. Advertisers can gain the most impact through selecting the magazine best suited to their products and target customers. Finally, the advertising guilds listed in Appendix 1 can serve as an excellent source of reference and guidance for international marketers who are completely unfamiliar with mass media in West Germany.

APPENDIX I

This list of advertising guilds is provided to give the reader the names and addresses of those organizations which are involved in the control and production of advertising in West Germany.

Zentralausschuß der Werbewirtschaft e.V.
   (Control Council of Advertising Business)
Villichgasse 17
PF 20 06 47
5300 Bonn 2

Arbeitsgemeinschaft Media-Analyse e.V.
   (Work Association of Media Analysis)
Wolfgangstraße 92
6000 Frankfurt a. Main 1

Deutscher Kommunikationsverband e.V.
   (German Communications Association)
Adenauerallee 209
5300 Bonn 1

Bund Deutscher Schauwerber e.V.
   (Federation of German Display Advertisers)
Fichtenweg 1
7034 Gärtingen

Bundesverband Deutscher Markt- und Sozialforscher e.V.
   (Federated Association of German Market and Social Researhers)
Frankfurter Straße 22
6050 Offenbach

Deutscher Werbefachverband e.V.
   (German Advertising Specialists Associations)
Apfelweg 12
PF 17 05
7012 Fellbach

APPENDIX II

This list of the publishers' and journalists' guilds in West Germany is provided to give the reader access to the member media represented by the guilds.

Newspapers:

Bundesverband Deutscher Zeitungsverleger
Riemenschneiderstraße 10
5300 Bonn 2

Periodicals:

Verband Deutscher Zeitschriftenverleger
Winterstraße 50
5300 Bonn 2

Journalists:

Deutscher Journalisten-Verband
Bennauerstraße 60
5300 Bonn 1

Deutsche Journalisten-Union in der IG Druck und Papier
Friedrichstraße 15
7000 Stuttgart 1

ENDNOTES

1. Bulka, Heinz D. and Lücking, Susan Facts About Germany, p. 316
2. Furniss, John D. " How To Find Your Way Through Europe's Tax Maze," p. 26
3. European Marketing Data and Statistics 1986/1987, p. 255
4. Quenet, Sylvia "Where print is still king," p. 41
5. Bulka and Lücking ibid. p. 319
6. ibid. p. 316
7. "Programmiertes Vortasten," p. 55
8. Bulka and Lücking ibid. p. 325
9. "What's happening in Germany," p. 21
10. ibid. p. 36
11. Bulka and Lücking ibid. p. 326
12. ibid. p. 326
13. "Prognose: Radikalkur in Sicht," p. 49
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AREA STUDIES REVITALIZED: THE CASE OF GERMAN STUDIES

by

Dr. Jackson Janes
Director, Office of Program Development
University Center for International Studies
University of Pittsburgh

412-531-5713

The Study of Contemporary Germany: Problems, Programs, and Possibilities

JACKSON JANES
German Marshall Fund of the United States

TOM MON783$$2

During the past year, a study was commissioned by the German Marshall Fund of the United States to determine the status of the study of contemporary Germany at the post-secondary level. The study was designed to examine how educational institutions organize the study of German affairs for the purpose of producing individuals with a broad, in-depth understanding of contemporary Germany.

For the purposes of the investigation, we defined our subject as the study of the Federal Republic of Germany and the German Democratic Republic in the areas of politics, economics, society, and history since 1945, as well as literature and culture in a social and political context.

The study had two main emphases. First, it surveyed the status of teaching and research on contemporary Germany in selected fields of the humanities, the social sciences and in the professional schools. The focus was on the departments of German, history, economics, sociology, and political science, and on the schools of business, law, journalism, and engineering. We surveyed over fifty leading educational institutions around the country to determine if and how contemporary Germany was a part of the individual or cross-disciplinary programs of teaching or research in these fields.

The second emphasis was on the employment opportunities in the public and private sector for those with expertise on Germany. We were particularly interested in the adequacy of our current resources to meet both present and possible future demands in these areas.

We were not surprised to find that there are many excellent academic programs and research facilities and that numerous productive contacts exist between American and West German scholars. In terms of amount of activity and sheer number of people involved, our resources seem more than adequate. Quantity alone cannot suffice, however, and we detected serious deficiencies in both breadth and depth of knowledge in certain disciplinary areas, most notably in some of the social sciences.

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Within the various academic disciplines, the scope of expertise is often quite narrowly defined, while in the professions, in business, law, engineering, and journalism, area expertise is either considered irrelevant or viewed solely as a desirable supplement to functional skills.

Given these findings, we were also not surprised to discover evidence of growing shortages in certain kinds of expertise or combinations of skills. For example, we learned that government agencies are experiencing increasing difficulty in locating people with advanced proficiency in the German language and a thorough understanding of German affairs plus some expertise in security matters. In the private sector, the immediate reward for language and area skills remains for the most part limited, resulting in a vicious circle of sorts between the supply and the demand of skills. Another troubling insufficiency is the shrinking supply of qualified German language teachers on the secondary level. These and other problems indicate that there is not always sufficient correspondence between what is stressed in our academic programs and the skills and background needed for certain careers.

What follows are some of the preliminary findings and conclusions of the report. For the purposes of this article, I have summarized the various assessments of teaching and research on contemporary Germany in the disciplines and professional schools investigated. The second section discusses the results of interviews held with individuals in the public and private sector concerning the demand for expertise on German affairs. The last section contains some of the implications and conclusions drawn from the study.

Assessment~~s~~ of Teaching and Research on Contemporary Germany

Our investigation of the disciplines and professional schools was primarily concerned with the type and extent of scholarship which has contemporary Germany at its center. We began with the German departments, since they play such a central role.

The efforts of German departments to increase the breadth of their undergraduate course offerings seem to have had considerable success in stimulating student interest, as enrollments are in fact on the upswing nationwide. Since the German departments in our survey gave varying explanations for the enrollment increase, however, it cannot be determined to what extent students were attracted to individual new courses, how many were inspired above all by the many recent innovations in language instruction, how many wanted to learn more about their ethnic origins (sometimes called the "roots" factor), and how many became interested in the new German Studies programs. More often than not, departments reported that the German Studies major turned out to be somewhat more popular than the German literature major, but usually because of particularly energetic professors or student interest in specific new courses rather than because of the program's perceived "usefulness" for specific career goals.

As any German Studies program must depend heavily on course offerings and faculty in other departments, strange gaps in some of the programs suggest that they are drawing on inadequate resources or lack the full cooperation of other departments. Some of the German Studies courses given by German departments are taught in English, apparently disappointing students who hoped to improve their German language skills while gaining knowledge of a subject area. But courses offered only in German exclude all students lacking the language skills. Only quite recently have there been efforts to address such problems of consistency and to standardize course requirements, establish academic criteria, and clarify the long-term purpose of the programs. A group of experts meeting at the October 1985 German Studies Association conference made considerable progress toward such definition and clarification, but more work remains to be done (see preceding article).

In light of these observations, it was particularly instructive to learn how the study of contemporary Germany is—or is not—part of the teaching and research activities of other key departments, and to learn how professional schools respond to the question of language and area studies within their programs.

In the case of history departments, our survey confirmed that the study of Germany is central to history departments, each having at least one faculty member who has specialized in German history. We found that there is a significant number of graduate students working on a topic relating to German history. This suggests that there are many younger scholars pursuing the study of Germany in their advanced research. However, there has been relatively little evidence that the subject of contemporary Germany, i.e., post-1949 FRG or GDR, has been the object of much American scholarly research except within the context of diplomatic history, particularly in connection with the post-war East-West conflict. The majority of courses cited and research emphases indicate a continuing trend toward a focus on the Third Reich period and an increasing interest in the pre-war Weimar period as well as in nineteenth-century Germany among younger scholars. To quote a professor "Our most popular course is the one on NAZI Germany".

There has been some recent increase in work on the immediate post-war period after the release of OMGUS and HICOG records for research and as younger American scholars become familiar with the German work being done on the history of the FRG or the GDR.

Our examination of the fields of economics, sociology and political science shows first of all that there is a great deal of contact between German and American social scientists. With almost all departments reporting that at least one member of the faculty had been in Germany teaching or doing research in the last five years, and that German scholars had visited them, the volume and intensity of contact is significant. Secondly, subject matter about contemporary Germany, primarily the FRG, is reportedly present in teaching in all three fields in varying degrees, although it remains unclear as to what that suggests. An exclusive focus on Germany is rarely found in economics or sociology, but it is more frequent in political science. Thirdly, relatively few graduate students in the social sciences have focused on Germany in their research in recent years. Finally, the GDR as a subject of study was most often found in the field of sociology. The trend in the social sciences has been to incorporate the study of German affairs (and European affairs in general) into the overall methodology of the discipline, far more so than in cases where the focus is on other areas of the world.

An additional observation concerns the study of the FRG and the GDR within the larger Eastern or Western European Studies framework. Just as the study of domestic and international affairs relating to contemporary Germany does not often occur in an integrated fashion, the study of the FRG and the GDR also does not occur frequently in an interrelated manner. This in part is due to the fact that the study of Western and of Eastern Europe are usually isolated from each other, with the GDR occupying a somewhat nebulous position within the latter field.

All of these observations point to a problem in the development of new mixes of teaching and research with regard to contemporary Germany. While there appears to be no lack of social scientists who work on Germany, there are not many who regard themselves as experts on Germany per se. The demands of the disciplines have narrowed the focus on Germany and inhibited the development of scholars both capable of linking domestic and international issues *and* conversant in the language. There is little incentive for this type of mix, and younger scholars find little reward in pursuing such studies.

In our survey of professional schools, we focused on how graduate students might be able to integrate the study of contemporary Germany into their professional training in law, business, journalism, and engineering. In general, we found that such opportunities are rare. The responses indicate that, while such a mixture at the undergraduate level is prevalent, the graduate level leaves little room for studies which go beyond the designated professional curriculum. Exceptions were found, however. Within a number of law schools, visiting German professors, including some from the GDR, are numerous. Interest in German legal history and affairs is widespread among American scholars. One sees this confirmed in the number of legal scholars from the U.S. applying for Humboldt or Fulbright Fellowships. Should a law student enter these law schools with an interest in German affairs, there are opportunities to pursue that interest, if not within a formal curriculum.

Our review of journalism schools found virtually no evidence that similar activities involving contemporary Germany exist. While certain schools allow a double concentration with other graduate schools, most reported that the students today are most interested in learning about international reporting and new technology.

With regard to programs in Business Administration, we found that at the undergraduate level, there were many instances of programs in which those getting a B.A. in Business would be able to either do a double major with German or German Studies degree, or pursue a certificate in German or German Studies. At the graduate schools of Business, the majority of the MBA programs reported that a wide variety of subject matter about Germany *may* be a part of courses in international business (finance, management, labor relations, marketing, industrial policy) in the form of clinical cases, but the main emphasis is on general skills relevant to international business. Most schools of business incorporate international business subject matter into so-called "functional courses," with only a few with separate international business departments.

Three graduate schools of business we investigated reported special programs in which the study of Germany is emphasized: The Masters in International Business Studies at the University of South Carolina, The Graduate School of International Management (Thunderbird), and the Joseph L. Lauder Institute of Management and International Studies at the University of Pennsylvania Wharton School. In each of these programs, a student picks a track in which he or she concentrates on a certain language. The student must take courses dealing with the country and its region. Both Pennsylvania and the University of South Carolina require an internship in the area in which the target language is spoken.

When asked whether they get requests from corporate recruiters for specialists on Germany (or any other country), a number of business schools answered that people with knowledge of South America and Spanish are sometimes sought out, but Germany was seldom reported. The Business School of the University of South Carolina did report such interest primarily among German corporate recruiters and American corporations with business in Germany. In a study done on the MIBS graduates in the German track at South Carolina over the last eight years, Kate Gillespi reported that for approximately 65% of them their German ability was very important in getting their initial job and for 53% it was important in performing the initial job.[1]

There evidently are many undergraduate programs in which students can and do combine a German language or German Studies major, minor or certificate with a major in business, but most business schools at the graduate level are not interested in providing area-specific training. Only 11% of MBA and 10% doctorate programs do. Which 22% of the schools have a language requirement for international business studies at the undergraduate level.

In keeping with the overall trend in business development, there are now more business schools with formal exchange agreements with educational institutions in Japan and China (28 and 31 respectively) than with the Federal Republic of Germany (15). Those in Germany are primarily with departments of economics at major universities.[2]

Engineering schools reported extensive faculty connections between German and American engineering faculties with some graduate and undergraduate student involvement as well. Scholarly exchange is very large in scope and intensity. A few programs exist for undergraduate students to study in the FRG, but it would appear that graduate students are less involved in such programs. A number of reasons were offered to explain this gap. First, graduate students are anxious to complete their training in order to begin their professional careers. Extra time in the form of foreign study or research is looked upon by many as costly. Second, recruitment of engineers by private firms begins when the individuals are still in graduate school, thus increasing the pressure on these students to finish as quickly as possible. Third, if graduate students are not already proficient in German by the time they enter graduate school, they are disinclined to begin language studies, especially in light of the preceding two factors.

Evaluation of the Need for Expertise on Contemporary Germany

A series of round table discussions and individual interviews were carried out with persons from corporations, consulting firms, banks, law firms, and media institutions to explore the perceived need for expertise and knowledge about German affairs as it relates to their operations. We discussed this with Americans whose firms had business dealings with Germany and with Germans who represented German firms. We also interviewed individuals who had been through special programs specializing in German affairs to see how such expertise affected their careers in the private sector.

In general, most employers stated that while the ability of the prospective American employee to speak a foreign language may be interesting to the potential employer, the main prerequisites for being hired are the functional skills needed in the field. International experience is an important aspect, but if the functional skills are not polished, neither language nor area skills will get the person hired. A specific area expertise, such as knowing Germany well and being fluent in German was seen by larger firms as only an indication of the person's overall capabilities. Upon beginning a career at a large corporation, it is often unclear where an employee will wind up. Hence, the firm attempts to hire persons with a sound background in a number of functional skill areas.

While the immediate instrumental value of expertise on German affairs was not stressed by the representatives of the larger firms, there was a consensus concerning language capability in general. Many individuals stressed the value of good communication in daily work, regardless of the language. The ability to speak another language, or the experience of having lived in another culture, were seen as part of the general ability of the prospective employee to communicate well. The value of that ability in the business setting was emphasized by individuals who had some training in business skills and a foreign language.

Discussions with German employers revealed two different sets of interests. On the one hand, many in the financial sector stressed the need for language proficiency at the entry and mid-level positions because of interaction with the headquarters during the training process. The head of personnel at Die Deutsche Bank in New York City said that he has *no* trouble finding prospective employees with both functional and language proficiency and that he was getting dozens of unsolicited job applications each year from German individuals who could meet such requirements.

~~On the other hand, other employers downplayed the language and said that it was most important for the employees to demonstrate functional skills. An interviewee from Volkswagen stressed that the company is called "Volkswagen of America," thus implying the American character of the company is most important.~~

Several individuals stressed the role of German professionals educated in the U.S. They become attractive to U.S. firms interested in setting up a subsidiary in Germany because they are familiar with the American business world and obviously know their own country. U.S. businesses are more inclined nowadays to seek out such individuals than they were twenty years ago when expatriate Americans were preferred. This shift is related to the fact that it has become increasingly expensive to send an upper-level management officer to Germany, especially when the chances to find a German for the job are good.

In the course of our discussions it became clear that companies will not necessarily provide the time or the opportunity for their employees to become area or regional specialists, unless the immediate need is evident. Hence, the problem of someone working in such a firm with area expertise and language capabilities is to maintain that expertise at a functional level during the time when it is not being utilized.

When American employees are to be sent to Germany, some kind of a preparatory language and culture course is usually provided. It is in this area where several corporate representatives suggested that special needs can be identified. Right now there is little opportunity for an individual to prepare for a longer stay in another country, other than taking a language course at a commercial institution. But since most American managers are given responsibility for more than one country and may stay in a given country only for a relatively short time, the level of motivation to immerse oneself in the culture is perhaps not as great as it might be for those planning on a longer stay. Hence, according to one manager, the advantage of having someone already equipped with language and area skills is clear: such a person needs less time and money to put these skills to work when they are needed. But it is not always clear when and how that will occur.

Discussions were also held with representatives in government institutions. It was pointed out by those in the intelligence and research area, that only a very small number of individuals are specifically hired as experts in one area or region. Often such individuals remain in the positions for a long period of time. Others moved through a number of areas. While there was some criticism expressed about the allegedly haphazard fashion in which the Foreign Service or the intelligence services use individual resources, it was nevertheless made clear that there is a need to improve the background training in terms of area and language expertise for those considering the foreign service.

Instructors at the Foreign Service Institute indicated that background knowledge about Europe in general and Germany in specific is much more limited today than it was ten or fifteen years ago. This decline was explained by the alleged decline in the status of education and training in these areas in the universities.

Those interviewed at the CIA, DIA, NSA, and NSC indicated that the information needs of the intelligence organizations vary daily and are operational in character. There is little opportunity to do comprehensive studies. However, when such information is required, the need is for a kind of "snap-shot", as one person put it, which allows for a general profile to be seen. In asking the interviewees whether they had access to such "snap-shots," many said that the resources were there, if not always well organized. One official indicated that there ought to be a better network of communication between the government and scholarly circles working on such issues as German affairs. Yet, in his opinion, the scholarly community is frequently working on a different mix of questions and interests than those of importance to the foreign policymaking operations. While this is perfectly understandable and even desireable in one sense, there is a need to draw on certain academic resources which might be useful to enlarge the perspective of those in an operational environment. A former member of the NSC said that he had organized inter-departmental meetings on German affairs and found that each department was understandably focused on its own concerns, without knowing the implications of its interests for other organizations concerned with German affairs. It was also observed that there was insufficient awareness in government circles about people in academia who could be helpful in dealing with Germany. Government officials stressed that among derived skills in potential employees, language proficiency ranked high in all cases. Expertise in German affairs should be combined with knowledge of U.S. foreign policy and the broader contextual understanding of Europe. One person at the USIA observed that those working on German affairs have either a German language background or have studied some aspects of German domestic politics, but they rarely also have a good understanding of U.S. foreign policy and U.S.-German relations.

Conclusions

(1) There is a large network of contacts and exchanges among senior American and West German scholars and students in many fields.

(2) Among graduate students and junior scholars, concentration on German affairs is less rewarded for purposes of job hunting and promotion than acquisition of theoretical and functional and/or professional skills.

(3) In the professional schools (law, business, journalism, engineering), the incentives for faculty and students to include a focus on a specific country are minimal. Expertise in language and/or area knowledge is viewed as a marginal advantage for job seekers.

(4) Most private sector employers are primarily interested in general functional skills and consider language/area studies a plus, but not a prerequisite. When they require specific expertise in German affairs, they either organize it themselves, hire commercial services, or hire a German. Language proficiency is the most important aspect of area expertise for the private sector employer.

(5) The government is not going to have a large number of jobs available for specialists on German affairs. Many government jobs require a combination of skills, such as a combination of security, trade, or other

policy-related issues with a general understanding of German and other European views and policies on these matters.

(6) The study of German affairs is a part of the framework of European Studies (East and West), but there appear to be few instances where the study of the FRG and/or the GDR is a central component of such programs at the advanced level.

(7) Language capability is central to all the possible applications of expertise in contemporary German affairs, but the status of German language teaching and proficiency is not good.

In light of the present trends cited above, there is a danger that we will soon have fewer specialists at universities teaching about contemporary Germany in other than the traditional fields of history and German. There appears to be no reward system to pursue the study of contemporary Germany at the advanced level in other areas. With few exceptions, we have not developed methods for linking expertise in German affairs to professional needs in the public and private sectors. Interest and information about German affairs is evident, if very specific and narrow in focus.

It seems evident that the ability to integrate the tools of language, of political, economic, and cultural understanding of German affairs with assessments of political, business, economic, or security policies requires stronger institutional cooperation and greater incentives for both faculty and students.

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[1] Kate Gillespie, "Foreign Languages and International Business: The ~~MBIS~~ MIBS Program after Ten Years," Foreign Language Annals 18 (1985): 47-51

PROCEEDINGS OF THE SIXTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGES AND COMMUNICATION FOR WORLD BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

PART VIII.

BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL JAPANESE AND CHINESE

WHY CULTURE SHOULD BE A KEY FACTOR IN STUDYING MARKETING IN JAPAN

by

Kathryn Fenich
Assistant Professor
Glassboro State College

WHY CULTURE SHOULD BE A KEY FACTOR IN STUDYING MARKETING IN JAPAN

Kathryn Fenich

> "The foundation of a nation's culture and the most important determinant of social and business conduct are the religious and philosophic beliefs of a people. From them spring role perceptions, behavior patterns, codes of ethics and the institutionalized manner in which economic activities are performed." 1

Religious beliefs can affect the culture of a country in many different ways. In studying various aspects of the Japanese culture, three religions (Buddhism, Shintoism and Confucianism) seem to play a very important role in shaping the attitudes and behavioral patterns of the Japanese. In understanding the religion and how it affects the consumer, marketers will be able to develop better strategic plans incorporating this information to suit the new environment. The United States has been accused of expecting the whole world to accept their way of doing business rather than studying other cultures and adapting products for these different needs. Therefore, this paper will discuss these three historically significant religions and how their dogmas influence the culture and in turn directs the consumer behaviors.

Buddhism is considered to have three fundamental doctrines: transient existence (an individual is only alive for a short time); lack of ego ; and Nirvana or perfect tranquillity. These three beliefs are the essence which unify the three religions studied in this paper. It is perhaps these attitudes which make Orientals so difficult to understand. While Americans might understand transient existence and yearn for perfect tranquillity, the thought of performing acts without thought for outside recognition or personal well being is very difficult. For example, in Japanese business, if a person comes up with a brilliant new idea, the idea is passed to the youngest or newest member of the work group to act as discussant for the concept. No one person is recognized as the innovator. In Japan where employment involves a lifelong relationship, personnel recognize they will have to live with a miscalculation because people don't get fired for a blunder. The department or group concerned therefore accepts the responsibility as a group for all decisions and acknowledges its errors as a group. Blaming one person, particularly someone else is not tolerated and the focus is one of working out the error as effectively as possible rather than passing the buck.

A triumvirate of beliefs come into play in the Shinto religion. The first dogma is to be grateful for the blessings of the spirits and the ancestral inheritances. A person shows devotion to the spirits and his ancestors by being digilent to the Shinto rituals which honor these beings. However, this must be done with sincerity, cheerfulness and purity of heart. The second dogma relates back to the Buddhist belief of the lack of ego. One must be helpful to others through deeds of service without any thought of reward. These service acts must help to advance the world as well as individuals because then the kami or spirits will have a good place to live. In keeping with the acts of service, the final mandate says that the will of the emperor will lead the way and therefore, obey the emperor and pray that the country will flourish so that everyone may live in harmony and prosperity.2

In examining the belief that one should be diligent to the rituals which honor the kami and his ancestors, many cultural norms can be found stemming from this dogma. Because the kami can be wood spirits or house spirits or any object's soul, nature is very important to the rituals. Therefore, priests study nature and are aware that there exists a harmony and pattern to nature and when change occurs it is very subtle and always in balance. The Japanese believe that they are highly sensitized to these subtleties because they live on a tiny island which is dictated to by the forces of nature like the typhoons, the seas and the mountains. They have had to learn to become acutely aware of and to live with these forces. As a result, some say that Japanese view nature in a more feminine way by bending to the will of nature and accepting the power as the willow bends to the wind. This thought in turn makes the Japanese more accepting of change. In contrast, Americans could be viewed as more masculine. As an example, the American pioneers is depicted as fighting to make a home in the wilderness. He wanted to be as sturdy as an oak, but oaks do not bend they break in violent winds and many pioneers broke under the pressures of their constant battle.

Because of the belief that kami are part of the eternal forces and man is transient, the rituals become important in preserving the environment. Japanese believe that they must improve and take care of their surroundings while they are alive. They are the caretakers during their lifetime and then because one's life is so short, the responsibility passes on to their children. A person is infinitesimal in the way of things therefore it is more important to be remembered as a good person so that the future generations will be proud. This concern for how the family will be remembered makes the Japanese pay a great deal of attention to details of their work. This concern for precision can be seen in the gardens made of stones and sand which represent the vastness of the universe. These gardens are carefully raked and maintained with the utmost care. This attitude is fostered in the delicate brushstrokes of the artwork and the bonsai plants which are painstakingly detailed. Even though the work is tedious and repetitious, the workers patiently and carefully work through every detail. This is to remind the Japanese that they are but a small part of this expanse and that they do not matter in the overall plan of the universe. In Japanese business, these same traits manifest themselves in the pride of quality in their work. Since they have been taught to be patient and pay attention to detail the products they manufacture are very high quality. This standard of excellence develops a higher level of expectation of consumer goods as well.

> "The largest importer of foreign cars in Japan says his company actually takes imported cars apart, reassembles them, and repaints them before offering them for sale 'Foreigners think cars are just like their shoes. They're satisfied if the doors open and the car gets them to where they want to go., The Japanese look for livability and external appearance when they buy. Therefore, at Yanase, we have to polish the cars and put enamel on them or else in Japan they won't sell.'"3

Proctor and Gamble learned a valuable lesson about Japanese consumer attitudes toward quality when they entered the diaper market in Japan. Without any consumer research, they tried to sell American diapers to Japanese mothers. However, Japanese consumers were displeased with the product because the diaper was too simple and it leaked. Unicharm on the other hand, did their research and changed the conventional diaper to prevent leakage by changing the design to a panty-type design. As a result, they dominanted the market before P&G realized what happened.4

The same concern for quality can be seen in Japanese designed products. The esthetics are geared toward simple lines and subtle colors. The designs are portrayals of creations in nature. Understanding what aesthetics are important and how they evolved may be able to prevent some of these comments which were heard continually at the American Import Fairs. "There's nothing I want to buy from America';'a bad design'; 'garish colors'; ' doesn't suit the Japanese sensibility'; or 'won't look as pretty on the table'.5

This concern for quality and care continues with the packaging. To a Japanese consumer, how a package is presented is just as important as the product inside. The outward appearance is painstakingly developed with tissue papers, ribbons, and painted landscapes to show that each aspect has been carefully and thoughtfully planned. Packaging also includes the product name. For example, in the U.S. alcoholic beverages are named after their refiners. (Dewar's Scotch, Johnny Walker whiskey, Sebastiani wines) However in Japan brands are named after flowers and animals which are symbolic of longevity and health, or natural images like snow and dew or names of rivers and mountains, for example White Stork wine or One Tree wine.

Both price and place are effected by the Japanese desire for perfection. Because they expect quality the first time a purchase is made, they are willing to pay the highest prices in the world for such items. This concept is continued in the consumer behaviors which show that Japanese would rather pay more money for a ready made product than assemble it himself. Of course, part of the price and place are based on the geography of Japan itself. Space is a premium on Japan so the living quarters are very small and storage is almost non-existent. Therefore, products need to be compact. Perishables are bought in small quantites and frequently. As a result there are many small neighborhoods stores which operate to cater to this continuous shopping behavior. The channel of distribution which results from catering to all these small stores is a long line of wholesalers and retailers which makes a nightmare for foreigners trying to figure out how to get their products to market. The mountains of Japan create a transportation dilemma of how to get the products over the mountains to the small pockets of populations. This process becomes very expensive which increases the price especially since the perishables must be fresh and high quality.

The second point about the Shinto religion stems from the state without ego. This doctrine " for the good of all" starts from the time one is very young. In the U.S. children are taught right from wrong; in Japan children are taught that failure to comply results in shame for the family. This can be seen in the work life of the Japanese. They believe in working hard which can amount to 12 hours a day 6 days a week, is the key to success. To live is to work. To work is to be conscientious and make everyone proud. Unfortunately, this concern for public opinion results in a great deal of stress.

Since the first rule of marketing is to find a need and fill it, two products in particular have been discovered to alleviate stress. The trend in the US is toward vacations and exercise to ease the pressure. This has been proven to reduce anxiety however the Japanese are afraid to take the time for a vacation for fear they will lose favor with their bosses. The six day work week has also caused some problems for the recreation industry. Everyone wants the same day to exercise. The result: to reserve a public tennis court, a Japanese must attend a three hour lottery two months in advance6 Unfortunately, the rest of the week is dead. So investors are leary of this product. One product that has become extremely successful has been introduced by NTT called Dial-An-Apology or Dial-A-Sympathy. For 40 cents, "the caller gets to shout angrily into the phone and then hear a recorded voice reply: "I'm sorry. It's all my fault. You are right". In Dial-A-Sympathy, a male voice reassures th4e caller :"Even men have difficult times. It's O.K. (sniffle... sniffle).' Each number receives 500-600 calls a day.7

Confucianism, the third religious lifestyle in Japan, should be introduced at this point to help continue the discussion on the state of egolessness or unselfish love for others and to introduce the importance of the emperor and the role of government. According to Kenneth Woodward8 Confucianism has three tenets. Each person has within himself an unselfish love or egolessness for other and this should become the goal of every person. All three religions discussed have had this philosophy as an integral part of the beliefs. The second point takes the concept of the emperor as supreme ruler a step further. In order to be a good ruler, he must first be a philosopher full of wisdom. This wisdom is a trait which can be cultivated through virtue and important relationships. A gentle decorum is required in all actions.

The concept of unselfish love for others is found in all three religions which have been discussed. This unselfish love for others has its roots in loyalty. Loyalty first relates to the family with duties and obligations. Make the family proud. Do not shame them by disgracing oneself. Then the loyalty increases from the family to the work place and finally to the sovereign and country. This devotion has levels of importance and it is these levels which are prevalent in the vertical Japanese society. Everyone has a position in society which is clearly defined. In Helm's article in Business Week he demonstrates how important these levels are.

> "A manager at a leading Japanese company was asked by his boss to resign and move to a small subsidiary. He was willing to comply, but his wife told him not to accept the demotion because she feared it would hurt their daughter's chances of concluding an arranged marriage. Torn between conflicting demands of his boss and his wife, the manager hanged himself."9

The Japanese arts also demonstrate this vertical positioning. For example, in the Kabuki theater, it is believed that young people should have a youthful name because they are new and untried. However as the actor matures and the style of their craft has ripened, they are allowed to adopt a new name with tradition to signify their matured capabilities. In Business Japan, the author of an article explained his feelings, "Brooke Shields, who I'm familiar with as a child actress, still goes by the same name although her image has completely changed now that she is an adult. It's inappropriate."10

These societal roles also dictate consumer behaviors. For example, an important stage is reached when a young person becomes a shakajin, which is defined as a public person or member of society. A young man becomes a shakajin when he graduates from school or starts working; a young women, when she marries. At this time, it is appropriate for them to stop wearing jeans and going to rock concerts. Some men even give up going to movies. However Suntory Whiskey has taken this concept further. They developed their product lines to suit a person's position in life. Before a person is a shakajin, they can drink the cheaper and lighter Tory or White Whiskey. Once the first job is obtained, the Red Suntory is suitable until further promotions allow the choice to Kaku. A Chief of Section is designated by Old Suntory Whiskey, the most popular brand. A Kacho or Section Manager may alternative between Old and Reserve, but Bucho or Division Head drinks Reserve.11

These societal structures also relate to personal selling. Understanding that one must be aware and behave according to their station in life is a key ingredient to Japanese selling. A salesman has a lower social position than the client therefore a certain decorum must be followed so as not to offend the customer. A salesman must act subservient to the buyer in order to show proper respect.

The second point of Confucianism is to respect the wisdom which the ruler or emperor has and in the hierarchy of loyalty, the emperor is the top of the ladder. The Shinto religion asks for total unquestioning belief in the Emperor for he oversees all things which allow the country to flourish and that allow people to live in peace and prosperity. Since the Japanese believe that everyone is out for the good of the country, the hierarchy forms a chain of perceptions. The high ranking government official's objectives are to promote prosperity and welfare for the whole nation. Therefore whatever the government does, is in the best interest of the country and that is the most important allegiance of all. The government tries to help Japanese industry because Japanese management objectives are designed to help their colleagues achieve a stable life. If management invokes a difficult set of rules it is because they must for the good of all the workers. Therefore, workers go on strike each spring as a ritual rather than as an aggressive act. Since government and industry are doing the best that they can for everyone, consumers have some remarkable attitudes. They have fewer consumer complaints and they expect the advertisements to be true. It is a prevalent viewpoint that if a company is rich enough to advertise on television then they must make a good product. Further, it is believed that industry would not try to hurt their consumers so no hard sell pitches are needed. Rather, advertisements build expensive images, especially for gift items. A favorite scene is one person in a vastness of space. Because Japan is such a small island with many millions of people, space is expensive and sought after. However to announce the price would be to upset the subtlty of the pitch so luxurious scenes are portrayed to connote this feeling.

The belief that the emperor is very wise is because he studies constantly and wisdom comes from education. However, anyone can grow with wisdom if they honor education and are open to learning. So it should come as no surprise that the literacy rate in Japan is 99%. The educational system in Japan is highly regarded and the top schools are very difficult to enter. Children are trained from the time they are very small to push to get into the top elementary schools. Tutoring programs for all ages is a major business. Most students go to school during the day and have tutors at night. The week of entrance exams for the university is known as "hell week" and students who fail have been known to commit suicide. Even acceptable candidates may have to wait up to six years to gain admittance. However admittance to the top universities almost guarantees a secure future. The government and the top corporations select their employees from these educational institutions. Since Japan has lifetime employment in these organizations, a person's future is locked in. However, a dichotomy of values occurs at this level. Education is very important but the question is who's knowledge takes precedence, the university or the corporation. Most corporations prefer to train their own employees so that the indoctrination process of corporate values and attitudes can be properly handled. The recruiters assure college graduates that any information or knowledge they will need to know for the job will be taught by the corporation. The most important quality a student can possess?: Compatability with others. How does this effect the college curriculum? "It is extrememly difficult to get into a good university," Atsuko added," but once you are accepted, it is easy to stay there. The university does not require you to work,, and many students hardly ever open a book. Yet they receive their diplomas just the same."12

This desire for knowledge and the negative impression that people acquire for unprepared presentations can effect seller-customer relations. Several important factors are hinged on this attitude. The first priority of a business relationship is knowledge of the seller. The Japanese spend a great deal of time trying to learn more about the salesman or liason. How a person acts and handles himself as well as his knowledge about the Japanese client's company and competitive position are key ingredients to a satisfactory start. If the buyer respects the seller , then the second phase can occur. Information about the company and all the product lines are required. These facts require not only price lists and common sales information, but a person must be knowledgable about the personnel, competitors and corporate objectives as well.

The last aspect of Confucianism deals with a gentle decorum in all actions. As in nature where everthing is in harmony and subtle changes occur, so to the Japanese believe human relations should be. One of the cardinal rules: everyone deserves to maintain their dignity and pride. To strip a person of these qualities is not acceptable. In order to allow each individual their dignity, the Japanese do not have straight forward negative expressions. The word "no" is not part of the language, rather there are 19 different phrases which express this idea without actually saying it. This can become quite confusing for a Westerner who may demand an answer. If forced to confront an issue, the Japanese will answer "I will consider it" or "I will think about it". Japanese workers realize that this means they should reevaluate their work and redo the assignment. Complaints are never directly expressed rather a private discussion over a drink is in order.

One of the social customs for developing consensus without confrontation is the nemawushi or root binding. After 5:00, rather than going home, Japanese workers go to their favorite restaurant where they have dinner and sake. This is the time for people to subtly broach ideas and ask for agreement. Companies consider this ritual part of the job and managers who take their department people are reimbursed as company expense. The ceremony of serving sake most represents this binding of comrades. Each person pours sake for the others to promote cameraderie among the workers. Sake is also an integral part of most ritual ceremonies.13

This root-binding process is very important because it allows ideas to be brain-stormed without the pressure for a decision. It is during this time that the consensus opinion is evaluated for each idea. No secrets are kept. Rather each idea must be discussed by everyone in order to learn all the ramifications. This is also the time that Japanese buyers take the sellers out to learn more about company and the person. Japanese want to trust and make friends with a seller before business can occur. This informal atmosphere allows the buyer to exchange important personal information and to size up the person. Without this nightlife, no sales transactions will occur.

The organizational structure also emphasizes this concept of consensus. Below is a diagram of a typical department physical plan. There are no walls. Everyone can hear all the information immediately. There are no secrets. Therefore, when consensus is reached, a plan has very short implementation time because everyone already knows the plan. Therefore, while strategic marketing plans may take a long time to reach a consensus opinion, when the decision is made, the plan is instantly implemented.

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

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            DEPT HEAD

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         |____________|
 _                          _
|A|                        |D|
|_|                        |_|
 _                          _
|B|        PHONE           |E|
|_|                        |_|
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|C|                        |F|
|_|                        |_|
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This paper has attempted to look at the key concepts of the three historically significant religions of Japan: Buddhism, Shintoism and Confucianism. As each religious concept was discussed the corresponding cultural norms were portrayed. These attitudes and cultural biases were then used as the basis for analyzing how they impact on the business environment and finally marketing.

In summary, Forbes magazine wraps up the importance of this discussion.

> "There are two ways to market products in Japan - their way or not at all.
>
> That's the lesson learned all too painfully by so many companies that have tried to crack the Japanese market with products ranging from ball bearings to baseball bats. . . "14

ENDNOTES

1 Robert Bartels. "National Culture - Business Relations: United States and Japan Contrasted." Management International Review no. 2 (1982):5.

2 Japanese Religion. Tokyo: Kodansha International Ltd. [1986]:33.

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4 Zachary Schiller. "How P&G Was Brought To A Crawl in Japan's Diaper Market". Business Week (13 October 1986):71.

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13 Irving Roberts. "Sake: Japanese Culture In A Timeless Flask." Business Japan (August 1986):39.

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RATIONALITY AS THE BASIC ASSUMPTION IN EXPLAINING JAPANESE (OR ANY OTHER) BUSINESS CULTURE

by

Shohei Koike

Department of Foreign Languages
and Bilingual Studies
Eastern Michigan University

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Introduction

Perceptions of Japan both by Japanese and foreign observers have undergone a marked change between the publication of Ruth Benedict's Chrysanthemum and the Sword in 1946 and the publication of Ezra Vogel's Japan as Number One in 1979. However, the primary focus of many studies on Japanese attitudes and behavior has remained almost the same, that is, to describe how different and unique Japanese values and behavioral patterns are in comparison with those in the Western cultures. As David W. Plath (1983, p.17) pointed out:

> Studies of contemporary Japan most often start by assuming that Japanese society and culture are inherently different from those in the rest of the world. The goal of such a study, then, is to discover and document the differences.

Discovering and documenting the differences are no doubt an essential component of the cross-cultural analysis. A major problem with many Japanese studies, however, lies in the ways the differences are presented. Most often, the differences are described in terms of absolutes, that is, such dichotomies as "shame culture" vs. "guilt culture," individualism vs. groupism, "high context culture" vs. "low context culture." The differences are also explained away by referring to such "uniquely" Japanese concepts as *amae* (emotional need for mutual dependence) and *tate* (vertical) society. For example, Japanese workers are often characterized as group-oriented, harmonious, loyal, and cooperative in sharp contrast with individualistic, independent, self-assertive, and confrontational Western workers. The behavioral characteristics are then attributed to Japanese cultural values and norms that are considered to constitute the basis of those operative principles or dichotomous concepts described above. Japanese workers are, for example, considered loyal and group-oriented because they are the products of a "high context culture," "tate shakai" (vertical society), etc.

The stereotypes derived from such simple concepts may serve as a convenient time-saving device for those people who have to strike a balance between the cost (or the consequence) of being ignorant of a foreign culture and the cost of obtaining information about the culture. However, subscription to such stereotypes will not only sacrifice the quality of information, but also fail to subject the cross-cultural differences and similarities to comparative analysis.

In the following I will make an attempt to apply economic analysis--which explicitly assumes that people are rational--to cross-cultural study. The purpose of this paper is to demonstrate that economic analysis is instrumental in understanding some cross-cultural differences. For this purpose, I will examine the differences in cooperative behavior between Japanese workers and American workers and will show how economic analysis will help one to understand why they behave differently.

Rationality and Economic Analysis

Economic analysis of human behavior is based on the assumption that people are rational in the sense that they can order, within limits, alternatives on the basis of their preference and can make a choice in such a way as to maximize their satisfaction. In other words, people know, within limits, what they want and choose more of what they want than less.

It is important to note that rationality pertains to the process of making a choice, but not to values and goals people act on. Values, preferences, and goals are considered neither rational nor irrational. People are considered to act rationally as long as they work consistently according to their values toward maximizing their satisfaction. People are rational in terms of what they are aware of; they make mistakes as they have only imperfect knowledge. People also fail to achieve their goals because they will receive benefits only in the relatively distant future while they incur immediate costs. People do not always know what they want, either, and they may act on their emotions. Despite these limitations, economic analysis assumes that much of human behavior is rational.

Any choice a person makes involves cost--what he must give up by choosing one alternative rather than another. For example, an individual must give up time, which means money to many people, even when he eats a "free lunch." A rational person who has to attend an important meeting will not go for a free-of-charge lunch if what he expects to give up by missing the meeting (the cost of a "free lunch") exceeds the benefit he expects to receive from the "free lunch." Economic analysis assumes that people make choices in such a way as to maximize the net gain--the difference between the expected cost and the expected benefit.[2]

Application: Cooperation in an Interdependent World

We live in a world of interdependence. We act not only on our values and beliefs but also under a set of institutional and interpersonal constraints, taking into account expected choices of others. This seems true in any business organization. As Richard Pascale and Anthony Athos (1981, p. 190) wrote:

> Organizational relationships are based on interdependence. As every executive knows, peers, superiors, and subordinates provide support and assistance to one another, and they depend on one another even when they pretend otherwise.

Economic analysis suggests that employees, whether Japanese or American, try to maximize their utility for oganizational or group interdependence, that is, they will choose an optimum level of interdependence. The rational choice on the level of interdependence involves the subjective evaluation of the costs and benefits of interdependence. The question to be examined here is why there are, if any, significant differences in the expectation of the costs and benefits among Japanese and American employees.

Interdependent relations are founded on expected reciprocity or the anticipation of an exchange of goods and services including assistance and support. How much a rational employee will contribute to the development and maintenance of an interdependent relation will depend on his expectation of how much to gain and how much to lose through his contribution. Such an expectation is considered to be affected by his internalized values as well as the institutional setting that provides a set of incentives and constraints.

It has been pointed out that interdependence is a significant cultural norm or principle in Japanese society. Robert Smith (1985, p. 40), for example, claims:

> What is unusual (about Japanese society) is that the acknowledgment of interdependence is so open and the importance of group affiliation made so throughly explicit. It is taken for granted that human relationships are reciprocal and complementary in character, and everyone is made aware from the earliest stage of life that human being is the product of interrelationships with others.

It seems true that most Japanese acknowledge the significance of interdependence in human relations. However, it is open to question whether the open, explicit acknowledgment of interdependence by the Japanese is "unusual." It may show a contrast with the American emphasis on the principle of independence, but the open acknowledgment of interdependence may not be a monopoly of the Japanese.

It is also important to note that the Japanese acknowledgment of interdependence is intertwined with the equally significant notion of reciprocity. To most Japanese, interdependence is not an abstract principle which would be universally applied to the human race. Interdependent relationships are developed and maintained among those people who can expect from each other an exchange of goods and services including affection, friendship, cooperation and loyalty. Such reciprocal relationships could be asymetrical, and there could be a long time lag in an exhange of goods and services.

At the psychological level, interdependence means that one's emotional state of mind will be affected by his anticipation of what others around him will feel about his own action and how they will react to it. Other things being equal, it seems that an average Japanese is emotionally more affected than an average American is by what others around him will feel about his attitude and behavior. For example, an average Japanese who behaves rationally is more reluctant to say a flat "no" to a request made by others with whom he has an interdependent relationship. In making a decision on how to reply, he anticipates that his negative answer will adversely affect others' feelings and/or positions, and he worries that they will have negative feelings toward him. He may be afraid that such negative feelings will have an unfavorable effect on future relationships. In other words, saying a flat "no" will affect his emotional well-being more than that of his American counterpart. Even when his rational choice is to turn down the request, he tries to do so in such a polite, implicit way that he may at least reduce the anticipated ill effect on his emotional state of mind. This process usually works among his fellow Japanese. However, when dealing with Americans, he may have to learn that his strategy will be no longer a rational choice.

One manifestation of inderdependence in the organizational setting is cooperation or mutual assistance among employees. Japanese workers are often considered more cooperative than American workers, that is, the optimum amount of assistance that a Japanese worker provides to his fellow workers is greater on the average than the amount an American counterpart does to his colleagues. If this is the case, the question is under what conditions rational American and Japanese workers behave differently--what affects their expectations of costs and benefits of being cooperative.

Suppose that a Japanese male white-collar worker named Tanaka is employed by a large Japanese company, while an American male white-collar worker named Smith is employed by a large U.S. company. Further, suppose that the two companies are in the same business and that both employees hold a similar junior rank position. When providing assistance to their colleagues, Tanaka and Smith will have to give up a certain amount of autonomy which they would have otherwise in carrying out their own work. A decline in autonomy is considered the cost of providing assistance, which will rise as the amount of assistance increases. How costly it is to reduce their autonomy depends on the relative weight each employee places on the value of the autonomy. The higher the relative value of the autonomy is, the higher the relative cost of being cooperative. Because of the cultural emphasis on the principle of independence in America, the relative value of the autonomy may be higher for Smith than for Tanaka. To this extent, Smith will be less cooperative than Tanaka when other things are held constant.

The above analysis would hardly be an economic analysis without an inquiry into the expected return (gain) from becoming cooperative and the effect of the institutional setting on the rational choice of cooperation. Consider this time what Tanaka and Smith may have to give up if they are not cooperative with their colleagues, that is, the cost of not being cooperative. How much they expect to lose will be affected by the value of cooperation as their internalized norm, and much more importantly by the value of cooperation in the institutional setting--how important the mutual assistance is in each of the organizations.

Suppose that like many large companies in Japan, Tanaka's company organizes small working groups called kakari or sections within larger organizational units such as departments. As Vogel (1979, p. 143) writes:

> A section might have eight or ten people, including the section chief. Within the section there is not as sharp a division of labor as in an American company. To some extent, each person in the same section shares the same overall responsibility and can substitute for another when necessary.

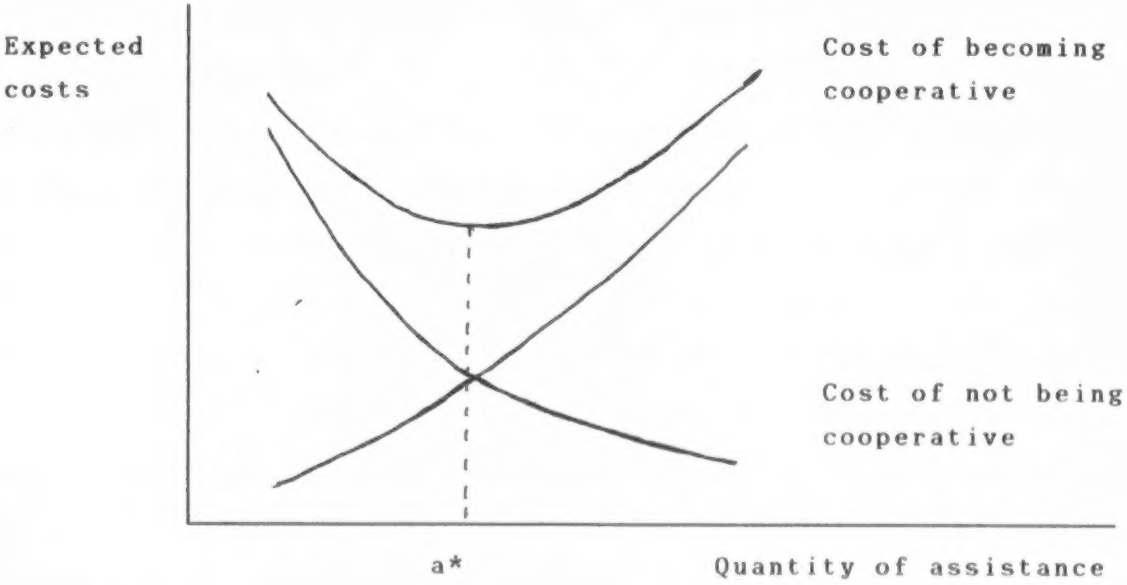
This organizational arrangement makes employees more interdependent upon each other than an arrangement that organizes a larger number of functionally-differenciated employees under a single manager or department head.

Tanaka's company is also no exception among Japanese companies in that it regards the ability to cooperate or at least to get along with colleagues as a significant quality for promotion, probably more so than Smith's company. For his promotion, Tanaka will probably need to rely on his colleagues' good will, esteem, and cooperation to a greater extent than Smith. Members of such a working group keep a close eye on each other; each is much concerned with what others will think of how cooperative he is. At the same time Tanaka may feel a deeper sense of belonging than Smith who works in a larger organizational unit. This small group arrangement will then have the expected cost of not being cooperative relatively high for Tanaka.

Suppose that Tanaka's company also encourages employee involvement in decision-making process (not necessarily decision-making itself) more than Smith's company. Tanaka then may feel a greater sense of satisfaction from the cooperation with his colleagues in participating in the decision-making process. This emphasis on employee involvement in decision-making process is considered another incentive for cooperation.

The price Tanaka expects to pay if he is not cooperative is considered to decline as he increases the amount of assistance to colleagues. A reduction in this cost can be regarded as a return or benefit from becoming cooperative. The optimum amount of assistance Tanaka provides is obtained when he minimizes the total of the two costs--the cost of becoming cooperative and the cost of not being cooperative. The two cost functions and the vertical summation of them are graphically presented in Figure 1. The optimum amount of assistance is the amount corresponding to point a* in Figure 1 where the total cost of cooperation is minimum, that is, Tanaka's utility from becoming cooperative is maximized. (In terms of the marginal cost-benefit analysis, this is equivalent to saying that the marginal benefit from becoming cooperative equals its marginal cost at point a*.)

Figure 1: Optimum Amount of Cooeration



A rational emoployee expects that he will incur costs if he is not cooperative, but at the same time he knows that he will have to give up a certain amount of autonomy if he becomes cooperatitve. Both Tanaka and Smith are expected to balance the cost of being cooperative against the cost of not being cooperative in such a way as to maximize their utility from the interdependent relationships in each organization. Under the above-mentioned assumptions on the institutional setting, the cost of not being cooperative is considered relatively higher for Tanaka than for Smith. That is, the expected gain from reducing this cost by becoming cooperative will be relatively larger for Tanaka than for Smith. Other things being equal, then, Tanaka is considered more cooperative than Smith.

There seem to be other institutional differences which will make the cost of not being cooperative relatively higher for Tanaka than for Smith. When a rational employee leaves his company voluntarily, he considers how costly his exit will be relative to other opportunities. If he has a lot to lose by leaving the company (for example, job security) and has difficulty finding another job which pays as well as or more than his present job, the expected exit cost is considered relatively high. The high exit cost often means that an employee will have few other opportunities than continuing his career in the same company. He and his colleagues will then have more incentives to depend on each other for successful career in the same company.

Large companies in Japan regularly (once a year) recruit college graduates with litte work experience and provide them with extensive on-the-job training for a long period of time. New recruits are assigned to different sections or departments and are expected to learn a variety of skills which are highly _enterprise-specific_. Tanaka's company is one such company which has a highly internalized labor market, promoting long-time employees to manegerial positions rather than recruiting from external sources. To the extent that other large companies observe these practices on training and promotion, it is costly for Tanaka to leave his company for another job.

Like many Japanese workers, Tanaka starts his career with a relatively low wage and gets promoted at a slow pace. The low starting wage and slow promotion are compensated by job security, a steady rise in salary with seniority, and a large lump-sum retirement payment. The longer Tanaka will work for the same company, other things being equal, the larger the retirement payment he will receive. The relative security in his job, steady rise in salary with seniority--by no means the only determinant for salary increases--and large retirement payment are expected to make the cost of early exit relatively high for Tanaka.

One of the significant skills for white-collar workers in Japanese companies is to develop a network of interpersonal and professional relationships with colleagues not only within but also outside their company. Cultivating such a network seems significant in any business culture, but probably more so in

Japan than in the U.S. Its contribution to success in making business deals seems greater in the Japanese business environment. Japanese companies tend to value a high-trust, long-term trading relationship to a greater extent even when they have to trade off a price advantage which a short-term, low-trust transaction may offer. Such a business relationship is developed and maintained through a close personal contact between employees of each party. Under this business environment, changing companies will mean, to many Japanese white-collar workers, a loss of the network of personal relationships which they have painstakingly cultivated. As long as this is the case with Tanaka, the expected cost of exit is considered relatively high for him.

Although the exit costs are considered relatively high for employees in large Japanese companies, there are signs that the benefits of being loyal to the same company are declining. The sharp rise of the value of yen against the dollar is causing export industries to lose cost advantages, forcing many companies to make drastic changes in their practices on employment and promotion. The unemployment rate reached a record high of three percent in January 1987--the worst figure since the government began compiling the monthly statistics in 1953. According to the Ministry of International Trade and Industry, some 900,000 workers are now classified as "jobless persons on payrolls," *i.e.*, excess workers and managers.[3] Some large companies in hard-hit industries like steel already laid off thousands of workers, planning to shut down some plants or moving overseas.

The pressure for change is so intense that many large companies have hard time maintaining the not-so-old career employment system and the wage and promotion practices strongly based on seniority. It is now a concern to many Japanese companies to find ways to get rid of surplus workers and managers without losing much face. As the lifetime employment is on the way out in many Japanese companies, there is another factor which is increasing the cost of staying in the same company. An increasing number of joint-venture businesses and frerign-affiliated companies are trying to recruit experienced managers in large companies. Nevertheless, the expected costs of changing jobs are considered still high for most white-collar workers in large Japanese companies.

It is suggested that the institutional constraints such as working group arrangement, peer evaluation, employee involvement in the decision-making process, and mobility in the labor market will affect employees' expectations of how much they will have to give up if they are not cooperative. Under the given set of institutional constraints, Tanaka is expected to pay a relatively high price if he is not cooperative. The cost of not being cooperative is considered relatively higher for Tanaka than for Smith because of the assumed differences in the institutional setting. Then, even if the cost of becoming coopertive is held constant, that is, the value of automomy is the same for Tanaka and Smith, Tanaka is expected to be more cooperative than Smith since the former has to pay a relatively higher price if he is not cooperative.

Concluding Remarks

A rational person who wants to do business in a foreign country cannot be totally ignorant of its business culture. Ignorance will, for example, cost him and his company the opportunity to make successful business deals. The cost he may incur because of his ignorance is expected to decline as he becomes informed. However, becoming informed is also costly in terms of time and resources spent. A rational businessman will try to balance the cost of becoming informed against the cost of being ignorant in such a way as to minimize the total of the two costs. A busy businessman who does not want to be totally ignorant about a foreign culture may find cultural stereotypes attractive as a convenient cost-saving device.

Economic analysis will go beyond saying that foreigners behave differently because of "the differences in culture." It will more than counterbalance the frequent tendency towards stereotypes and "national characteristics" for explaining human behavior in different cultures. Economic analysis suggests that some observed differences in behavior between different cultures will be attributed to differences in (1) relative prices of goods and services, (2) values and beliefs people act on, and/or (3) institutional constraints which have developed historically. Economic analysis suggests, for example, that Japanese employees are as rational as American counterparts; they respond, on the basis of their values, to different prices and/or different sets of incentives and constraints that exist under different institutional settings. It does not suggest that Japanese workers are always harmonious and cooperative because of the harmonious and cooperative attributes of the Japanese race which have been cultivated in its traditional culture. Economic analysis instead indicates that the Japanese workers who act on the value of interdependence and reciprocity will be relatively cooerative under a certain set of institutional constraints.

Institutional constraints develop "in part by sheer accident; in part by survival in a social evolutionary process; in part by technological necessity; in part by constructive design (correctly or incorrectly conceived)" (Buchanan, 1978, p. 364). Some institutional arrangements are more likely to change at a relatively faster pace than deep-rooted cultural values and beliefs.

Japanese society has undergone marked changes since the end of World War II. The system of organization and human resources management of Japanese corporations are no exception. Big corporations, for example, developed the lifetime employment system after a series of labor-management confrontations. However, the system is already subject to change as the slow economic growth and the strong yen are creating a large number of surplus workers and managers.

Values and beliefs shared by young workers are also changing. According to a recent survey, 60.9 percent of young adults believe that life should be enjoyed while only 31.3 pecent of their parents' generation share the same sentiment.[4] Another survey shows that 66 percent of young employees polled are not content with their present job and that over 50 percent of them are ready to change jobs.[5] Masakazu Yamazaki (1984, p. 17) asserts to the extent that "the majority of people are no longer concerned solely with the achievement of affluence and equality; they are beginning to demand that they be treated as unique individuals and that other people recognize their uniqueness." According to Yamazaki, the aging (or maturity) of Japanese society is also leading to the diversification of values and lifestyles. Those changes in values and institutional arrangements will no doubt have an impact on behavioral patterns of Japanese workers.

Unlike the stereotypes, economic analysis will allow us to anticipate changes in behavioral patterns of workers. It will lead us to an empirical inquiry into changes in the values and beliefs workers act on as well as changes in the institutional setting. It is to be hoped that this paper may serve as a point of departure for future application of economic analysis to cross-cultural studies.

Notes

1. There is a voluminous literature on Nihonjin-ron (the debate over the uniquness of Japanese values and behavioral patterns. Among the most frequently cited are Benedict (1946), Nakane (1965), Doi (1971). For the concept of high/low context culture, see Hall (1976). Consult Sugimoto and Mouer (1982) for an excellent critique of Nihonjin-ron.

2. See McKenzie and Tullock (1978) for a unique application of economic analysis to studies of human behavior.

3. Japan Times Weekly, March 21, 1987.

4. Time, April 13, 1987, p. 42.

5. Japan Times Weekly, August 16, 1986.

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BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL SPANISH

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Dr. James E. Hundley
Department of Foreign Languages
612-647-5640

COLLEGE OF
St.Thomas

P.O. Box 4123
College of St. Thomas
2115 Summit Avenue
St. Paul, Minnesota 55105

The U. S. Hispanic Market: An Overview

Dr. James E. Hundley
- College of St. Thomas

The U.S. Hispanic Market: An Overview[1]

Introduction

The untapped U.S. Hispanic market presents unique challenges and unlimited opportunities to those who will understand it and pursue it.

The market's purchasing power is currently estimated at between 70 and 95 billion dollars. This makes the Hispanic consumer not only an important market segment, but a market force that changes a brand's overall share. Hispanics exert a leverage in the marketplace that is disproportionate to the actual size of the population.

Estimates place the Hispanic population of the United States at 17.6 million persons (Strategy Research Corporation 38). It is a young population (the median age is 23) and is growing six times as fast as the general population (Strategy Research Corporation 58). At current growth rates, the U.S. Hispanic population is expected to reach 27 million by the year 2000 (Strategy Research Corporation 37).

Hispanics give marketers the advantage of being clustered in a way few other markets are. Thirty metropolitan areas contain 84 per cent of the total U.S. Hispanic population (Strategy Research Corporation 129). In fact, just six metropolitan areas (Los Angeles, New York, Miami, San Antonio, Chicago and San Francisco) contain more than 50 per cent of the total U.S. Hispanic population (Strategy Research Corporation 130).

The U. S. Hispanic Market: Is It Assimilating?

The Hispanic market is not one that will eventually melt into the American cultural mainstream. Instead, it is a major cultural and linguistic group that is different from the mainstream, and it is not assimilating.

According to Richard Tobin, President of Strategy Research Corporation, "The general thrust is that as the Hispanic market grows larger... it is growing more separate from the U. S. population. It used to be that if a Hispanic wanted to experience all that America could offer, he had to enter the greater Anglo community. Now he doesn't have to do that."

Instead of assimilating, Hispanics are "crossculturalizing". That is, they are maintaining their own distinct cultures while adapting to American culture. The proximity of Hipanic immigrants to their homelands and frequent travel create a constant awareness and reinforcement of their heritage.

In view of this, the Hispanic market is not one that can be entered until it melts into the American cultural mainstream. The consensus among marketers is that it must be entered on a long term basis.

Markets Within The U. S. Hispanic Market

The 17.6 million Hispanics in the United States are divided into the following groups with regard to their country of origin or ancestry:

Nationality	Percent of Total
Mexican	59.3%
Puerto Rican	13.6%
Cuban	5.8%
Other (Dominican Republic, Central and South American)	21.3%

Source: Strategy Research Corporation 39

Various regions of the United States are clearly dominated by specific Hispanic groups. For example, 97 percent of the Hispanics residing in the Texas/Southwest area and 81 percent of the Hispanics in California are of Mexican origin. In Florida, 87.3 percent of the Hispanics list Cuba as their country of origin. In New York, Puerto Ricans comprise 58.1 percent of the Hispanic population (Strategy Research Corporation 41).

The Hispanic Market: Homogeneous Or Not?

Is the U. S. Hispanic population homogeneous or a collection of subcultures, each with its own separate identity? Recent studies (Yankelovich, Skelly & White) suggest that U. S. Hispanics are becoming more homogeneous as the different subgroups recognize the ties that bind them. The Yankelovich, Skelly & White report (62) shows that 50 percent of the Hispanics surveyed think of themselves as Hispanics first, Americans second.

It is true, nonetheless, that the various Hispanic subgroups each have a strong sense of their own cultural identity. The Yankelovich study (65) shows that when asked, 80 percent of Los Angeles Hispanics will tell you they are Mexican-Americans, 60 percent of New York's Hispanics will claim to be Puerto Ricans, and 84 percent of Miami's Hispanics will say they are Cubans.

While it is true that Mexicans, Puerto Ricans and Cubans each have their own cultural and linguistic idiosyncracies, it is also true that they have much in common, and there are those who believe that the similarities outweigh the differences. For example, each Hispanic subgroup has its own distinct language dialect. Mexican Spanish is as different from Caribbean Spanish as British English is from American English. Nevertheless, it is the same language and, in most cases, is mutually intelligible. The Spanish language is perhaps the single most important unifying force that links Hispanics of all nationalities together.

Many marketers now are touting the existence of the "national Hispanic market." They claim that there exists a "generic" or "standard" Spanish which is acceptable to all Hispanics, including Mexicans, Puerto Ricans, Cubans, Dominicans, and Central and South Americans.

Others, however, do not believe in the existence of a homogeneous Hispanic market and feel that the market must be segmented. Eduardo Caballero, president of Caballero Spanish Media, says, "Most people who share a philosophy that the Hispanic market should not be segmented are generally those who do not speak Spanish."

The need to segment the Hispanic market is often illustrated by linguistic gaffes. In New York, for example, Puerto Ricans refer to beans as *habichuelas*, but to Mexicans and Cubans they are *frijoles*.

In summary, marketers fail to agree as to whether the Hispanic market is homogeneous or not. The only thing they do agree upon is that the market is sizeable and the dividends for reaching it are plentiful.

General Demographics

Median Income

The U. S. Hispanic median family income is estimated to be $19,900, compared to $28,400 for the U. S. total population (Strategy Research Corporation 63). The median family income by type of Hispanic origin is as follows:

Mexican	$20,200
Puerto Rican	14,200
Cuban	24,400
Other Hispanic	23,000

Source: Strategy Research Corporation 63

By region, Hispanics in the Southeast have the highest median income ($24,100), while those residing in the Northeast have the lowest ($14,400). The Southwest ($19,500) comes the closest to the national Hispanic median income of $19,900 (Strategy Research Corporation 63). Based on the regional concentrations of the three major Hispanic origin groups, this data is consistent with the preceding information showing median family income by type of Hispanic origin.

Median Age

The median age for the U. S. Hispanic population is 23.6. Slightly more than one-fourth (25.2 percent) of all U. S. Hispanics are children under the age of 12, while teens (12 to 17 years of age) comprise 12 percent of the U. S. Hispanic population (Strategy Research Corporation 58).

According to Strategy Research Corporation (58), the youthfulness of the Hispanic population is due primarily to two factors. The first factor is the relatively high fertility rate among Hispanics in comparison to the general population, as evidenced by the larger than average family size of Hispanics (3.7 for Hispanics compared to 2.7 for the total U. S. population). The second factor is the heavy immigration of young adults who are in the prime child-bearing ages. According to the Immigration and Naturalization service (Strategy Research Corporation 58), in the 1970's more than one-third of all legal immigrants from Spanish-speaking countries were between the ages of 20 and 34.

Household Size

Although one and two person households have become the norm in the United States, this does not hold true for U. S. Hispanic households which have traditionally been larger, on the average, than non-Hispanic households. The average size of the Hispanic household is 3.7 persons compared to an average size of 2.7 for all U. S. households (Strategy Research Corporation 61). All three of the major Hispanic nationality groups show average household sizes in excess of the overall U. S. average, with the Mexicans showing an average household size of 3.9, followed by the Puerto Ricans with average size of 3.7 and the Cubans with an average of 3.3 (Strategy Research Corporation 61).

Education

It is estimated that only 45.4 percent of U. S. Hispanic males 25 years of age and over have graduated from high school, compared to 67.3 percent of all U. S. males 25 and over. Among females 25 and over, the comparable figures are 42.7 percent for Hispanics and 65.8 percent for all U. S. females (Strategy Research Corporation 65). With regard to college, it is estimated that only 9.4 percent of U. S. Hispanic males 25 and over have completed four years of college, compared to 20.1 percent of all U. S. males. For females 25 and over, the comparable figures are 6.0 percent for Hispanics and 12.8 percent for all U. S. females (Strategy Research Corporation 65).

Although the previous data indicate that the level of educational attainment is not as high for Hispanics as it is for the total U. S. population, nevertheless, Hispanics do place a high value on education and see it as part of the road to upward mobility. For this reason, a trend toward greater academic achievement among U. S. Hispanics is expected in the future (Strategy Research Corporation 37).

Occupation

The following table shows estimates of employment by occupational category for both U. S. Hispanics and the total U. S. population:

Category	Hispanics	Total U.S.
Professional/Technical	7%	17%
Managers/Proprietors	8	11
Clerical	19	19
Sales	6	7
Craftmens/Foremen	19	12
Service Workers	19	14
Operatives	13	14
Laborers	9	4
Farmers	Less than 1%	2

Source: Yankelovich, Skelly & White 23

The above data show that, overall, Hispanics are clustered in blue-collar and semi-skilled jobs in fields such as construction and manufacturing. It is expected, however, that as the level of educational attainment of Hispanics increases, so will their penetration of professional and managerial occupations (Strategy Research Corporation 37).

Cultural Characteristics

Language

Very few Hispanics are indifferent to their cultural heritage, and Spanish is the language for transmitting Hispanic cultural values.

Strategy Research Corporation reports that "increased economic and educational participation of Hispanics in American society has been accomplished without abandoning the Spanish language. For the 17.6 million Hispanics in the U. S. today, Spanish is the primary language spoken."

Over 90 percent of U. S. Hispanics cite Spanish as the first language they learned to speak. More than two-thirds of U. S. Hispanics prefer to speak Spanish in the home. Among U. S. Hispanics, the Spanish language proficiency is almost three times greater than the English language proficiency (Strategy Research Corporation 75-99).

The use of the Spanish language is still dominant among Hispanics for several reasons: emotion and pride, nearness to the homeland, and constant replenishment from immigration by Spanish-only speaking persons.

Spanish language advertising is effective even in convincing predominantly English speaking Hispanics that an advertiser is interested in them. Ernesto Balleste, a Hispanic marketing specialist in California, says, "Your mental reaction is, 'that was written for me because I understand Spanish.' When the commercial is in English, it can never register in the same way " (Advertising Age 20).

Sex Roles

Hispanics have more traditional views of sex roles in the family. A factor that keeps Hispanic household income lower than the U. S. average is that fewer Hispanic homemakers work outside the home (38 percent compared to 47 percent for the total U. S. population) (Yankelovich, Skelly & White 41). The presence of more young children is a deterrent to women entering the workforce.

Another factor among Hispanics is the definition of masculinity being based on being the breadwinner. Many Hispanics define masculinity this way. Having a working wife is a violation of basic sex roles in the view of many Hispanics, more so than among all Americans. It was, however, only about 15 or 20 years ago that Americans in general reported the same ideas about the roles of men and women. In some ways, Hispanics are moving faster than Anglos did toward changing this idea.

There is evidence today of a gradual assumption of more aggressive roles by Hispanic women. One example of this is the fact that Hispanic women are becoming more influential in big ticket purchases. It may be that modifications in sex roles for Hispanics will take place first within the family, then in the employment arena (Yankelovich, Skelly & White 72).

Holidays and Festivities

Hispanics are robust, lively, colorful people who love a fiesta. The following holidays and fiestas are celebrated by Mexican-Americans:

16 de Septiembre (16th of September)

This is a major holiday celebrating Mexico's independence from Spain in 1810. The whole community becomes involved with parades, fiestas, celebrations of music, dance crowning of queens, food and drink. Hisapnic businesses, churches and organizations often participate. It is celebrated in nearly all Mexican-American communities in the United States.

Cinco de Mayo (5th of May)

This is a misrepresented holiday, often confused by the Anglo population with Mexican Independence Day. The real occasion, however, is a celebration of the victory on May 5, 1862, of Mexico's forces over Napleon and the French army in the Mexican city of Puebla. Although not quite as important as the 16th of September, this day is widely celebrated in Mexican-American communities throughout the U. S. with fiestas, parades, and sometimes musical events and dances.

La Navidad (Christmas)

Christmas is a big family occasion for Mexican-Americans and perhaps is more closely tied to the church than the Anglo celebration. It is an especially important day for food, preceded by extensive preparation, baking holiday breads, making dozens of tamales and other special holiday foods for the family. A popular dish at Christmas time is mole poblano, chicken in a very spicy sauce which contains, among other things,unsweetened chocolate and chile peppers. (Anglos often refer to it as "chicken in chocolate sauce".)

Quinceaños or Quinceañera

This is a celebration of a Hispanic girl's 15th birthday, her "coming out" so to speak. It starts with a religious service in which the birthday girl and her friends don ball gowns and participate in the service. The religious service is followed by a party which is as elaborate and decorative as the family finances allow. There is music, dancing and a large presentation of food. The quinceaños is celebrated by Hispanics of all nationalities throughout the United States.

The Hispanic Consumer

Hispanics Spend More

Despite their lower than average income levels, Hispanics spend a disproportionately high percentage of their earnings on packaged goods. They spend approximately $10 dollars more per week on groceries than their Anglo counterparts (Yankelovich, Skelly & White 56).

While this is due in part to their having larger families, it also stems from a general psychology of "having today". With the exception of Cubans, most left their native countries for economic reasons, to make a better life. One affordable way of showing that their life has improved is with food.

Hispanic Shopping Habits

Hispanics are generally more enthusiastic shoppers than Anglos. They view shopping as a treat, whereas many Anglos consider it drudgery. Product quality, price, and shopping ease are high in importance among Mexican-American consumers (Journal of Consumer Research 22).

Hispanic men show a greater interest in grocery shopping with their wives than do most other American men. As more Hispanic women enter the work force, men are becoming more involved in shopping, but not in the roles of homemaking, cooking and child care. The so-called "Superwoman syndrome" is more prevalent among Hispanic working women than their Anglo counterparts. Young Hispanic women who work are more likely to travel outside their neighborhoods to shop.

Hispanics in the Central and Southwest regions of the market (Mexican-Americans) do the majority of their food shopping in large traditional chain stores, and some shopping in specialty stores and neighborhood bakeries. Hispanics in the East (Cubans and Puerto Ricans) do the majority of their food shopping in small markets called bodegas (mom and pop grocery stores).

There is a Hispanic trait of seeing abundant stock in the food store as an invitation to buy without fear of depleting the supply for others. Fiesta Mart in Houston has found success in capitalizing on this idea by overstocking on all items Hispanics can possibly want (Advertising Age 18).

Limited research indicates that the frequency of food shopping among Hispanics is quite parallel to Anglo patterns in the Central and Southwest markets, but more frquent among Hispanics than Anglos in the East.

Are Hispanics More Brand Loyal?

Whether or not Hispanics are more brand loyal is debatable, and the research is contradictory. Yankelovich, Skelly & White studies (39) show that a commitment to national brands is stronger among Hispanics. 38 percent of Hispanics believe that the most popular brands are the best, compared to 23 percent of the general population that believes this. 82 percent of Hispanics say they stay with a brand they like.

The Journal of Consumer Research (25), however, says that only modest support was found for the notion that Hispanics are more brand loyal, and recommends futher investigation.

Armando Triana, De Paul University, reports, "Hispanics are initially more volatile, then later more loyal to particular products. That is, until brand loyalty is established, they are more likely to try new things " (Advertising Age 37) .

In some cases, Hispanics come to this country with brand preferences developed in their country of origin. An example is Coca Cola.

Couponing to Hispanics

It is generally thought that Hispanics do not show a great deal of interest in coupons. Felix Burrows, Jr., Chicago marketing specialist, says, "Much of this lack of interest can be attributed to the lack of marketing activity in the Hispanic marketplace. Major merchandisers exclude many Black and Hispanic areas when couponing direct mail promotions." Mr. Burrows goes on to explain, however, that as Hispanics are courted by marketers eager to expand their share proportions, coupons will register a significant effect on increased sales. "Coupons to minorities," he says, "are most effective when accompanied by in-store demos and ongoing ad-support schedule."

Reaching the Hispanic Market Generally

One thing that makes the Hispanic market different from the mainstream market, according to Armando Triana, DePaul University, is that advertising is not enough to establish wide and deep brand loyalty. To be effective, advertising must be supplemented by a vigorous program of promotional special events that put the product or service into the community through human representatives.

Sensitivity is the key. Avoiding cultural stereotypes and tokenism is the number-one rule in approaching the Hispanic market. What the Hispanic consumer notices most is the respect paid his culture by the marketer.

In the past, advertisers used Anglo market commercials and ads, translated into Spanish. The consensus now is that this appears as a solicitous attitude and does more to alienate the Hispanic consumer.

Hispanics are significantly more likely than Anglos to believe that advertising represents an honest and helpful portrayal of products and people. Hispanics do not voice the amount of skepticism about advertising that many Anglos do.

The message needs to address cultural differences and appeal to the stronger emotion of the Hispanic. The message should convey the same product image that general advertising and promotion convey. English and Spanish language messages work best when they reinforce each other. Experts agree that cross-over promotion is most effective because of the frequent cross-over the Hispanic makes between Spanish and English media.

The use of a bilingual approach to marketing reinforces a sense of belonging, of a consistent image for the market.

The traditional love of home and family indicates a need to stress quality and benefits over price. Hispanics want the best for the family, and food is one of the most important focuses of the Hispanic household.

Those who have been successful in marketing to Hispanics emphasize that a multiple approach is necessary. J. C. Penney, which ranks 20th nationally in expenditures to the Hispanic market, reports, "Our entire approach has recognized that you can't develop only advertising. You have to become involved in and work with the community at the local and national level " (Advertising Age 17).

General Foods says: "...community service is a marketing tool which gives a product an excellent image in the Hispanic community ... an extension of your advertising dollar which gives a very positive exposure to the market."

Anheuser-Busch, whose Budweiser tops Hispanic beer preference lists, attributes its toehold on the Hispanic market to three factors: a good product, a good wholesaler network, and paying good attention to advertising. All three are further supported by the firm's involvement in community affairs.

The Arizona Bank, which has successfully penetrated the Hispanic South Phoenix area, attributes its success in part to "...turning community involvement into more than a P. R. exercise..."

Making Community Involvement Work

Involvement in Hispanic communities, while significant in penetrating the market, must be done without an appearance of tokenism or an overt effort to solicit business. The important idea is to demonstrate interest in the community and its advancement.

Corporations have been involved in some of the following ways:

- Sponsorship of Cinco de Mayo and September 16th fiestas.
- Sponsorship of various community events, such as health fairs, charity bike-a-thons, and floats in holiday parades.
- Involvement in various other fiestas, such as annual Hispanic Fairs or 4th of July celebrations.

- Sponsorship of Latin musical events.
- Sponsorship of voter registration drives.
- Involvement in Hispanic education and scholarship programs.
- Membership in local and national Hispanic Chambers of Commerce and their national conventions.
- In-kind contributions to non-profit organizations dedicated to the advancement of the Hispanic community.

One of the significant factors in community involvement is the presence of corporation people, and an image of sincerity. The simplest and most effective means of penetration in local markets is the presence of Hispanic personnel to assist with the involvement.

The Media Scene

Research indicates that radio and television are the two most popular media used to reach the Hispanic market. Outdoor advertising is also used frequently (Strategy Research Corporation 107).

Strategy Research Corporation (107-108) reports the following:

- Slightly more than two-thirds of all U. S. Hispanics say they watched Spanish TV yesterday.
- One-half say they listened to a Spanish radio station.
- One-fourth reported reading some form of Spanish language print.

There are over 80 full-time Spanish language radio stations, and nearly 20 full-time Spanish language television stations in operation in the U. S. Los Angeles and Miami both have seven full-time Spanish language radio stations. Los Angeles has two Spanish language TV stations, as do San Francisco, New York, Chicago and Miami. Accessibility to the Hispanic audience is facilitated by the fact that U. S. Hispanics are geographically concentrated and largely urban. They can therefore be effectively reached through the use of relatively few media outlets (Strategy Research Corporation 287).

SIN Television Network and its affiliates are the most watched Spanish language TV by virtue of their size and viewing area. The Network's 257 affiliates serve virtually every major Hispanic market in the U. S. Recently, however, three Spanish language TV stations, located in New York, Los Angeles and Chicago, have joined forces to create a competitor to SIN, called NET-SPAN.

There are also Spanish language newspapers and magazines of both local and national distribution to serve the U. S. Hispanic market. De Armas Magazine Network, for example, provides U. S. editions of the following Spanish language magazines: *Buenhogar*, *Cosmopolitan en Espanol*, *Tú*, *Vanidades Continental* and *The Ring en Español*.

NOTES

1 All of the demographic information in this paper was obtained from secondary data sources (Strategy Research Corporation and Yankelovich, Skelly & White) and are projection estimates made in 1984.

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Commercial Spanish:
Developing Proficiencies and Business Practices

By

Jose E. Reyes-Tudela, Ph.D.

Professionals dedicated to the teaching of foreign languages or involved with foreign language study, after surviving a difficult period of decreasing interest and enrollments, now find themselves encouraged by recent studies reflecting renewed interest and enthusiasm for foreign language study. The President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies attests to what has always been known to foreign language advocates; that is, the vital role foreign languages play in national defense and international commerce.

Over the past decade in response to student interest and as a matter of survival, the profession encouraged the teaching of commercial foreign language courses as viable and practical alternatives to traditional language courses.[1] Yet many instructors, trained in language and/or specialized in literary periods, implemented career or applied language study when traditional majors had almost disappeared and course selections were severly limited. Until recently few had envisioned teaching commercial language courses as a permanent and reputable part of the language curriculum. Most had remained optimistic that commercial courses would be transitory. Initially, the poor quality of texts and material attested to the less than serious status afforded such courses. Many instructors considered the time and energy required to develop such courses as poor investments. Few received more than verbal encouragement from college administrators. Nevertheless, commercial language courses have been successfully established on campuses across the United States and are being studied by an energetic and highly motivated group of students confident that their diligence will be rewarded with real career advancements. Although commercial language courses often demand more of an instructor's time and energy than many traditional courses, greater, too, are the rewards from diligent and enthusiastic students who are developing language acquisition and functional business skills.

Introduced four years ago, Marywood's Commercial Spanish is a six-credit course offered to Spanish majors and to majors in International Business with a concentration in Spanish. The course is conducted in Spanish and, therefore, students generally enroll either their junior or senior year. Class meets three times a week with class size varying between fifteen and twenty students. The past two years the texts _Al día en los negocios: Escribamos_ and _Al día en los negocios: Hablemos_ (New York: Random House, 1985) were used concurrently for both semesters. These texts not only offer an excellent variety of material, they also lend themselves to further development of topics according to the instructor's expertise and student goals. Periodicals, newspapers, films, videos, and material obtained abroad afford students real and meaningful exposure to the business world of Spanish-speaking countries.

In addition to language proficiency activities common to most commercial language courses, students at Marywood College identified the following projects to be the most functional and challenging. It was the _carpeta_, a tangible product of their labor, which students felt best reflected their growth and accomplishments. They also stated that their individual involvement with one multinational company and their exposure to several others lessened their fears of the foreign business world. Both projects were begun the first weeks of class and carried through two semesters.

The first day of class is inevitably the most difficult for both the instructor with his specific and realistic goals and for the student with his real expectations and anxieties. If all such considerations are initially addressed, optimum student performance is greatly enhanced.

Therefore, each student is presented with an individually addressed envelope containing a business letter in formal Spanish style. The letter/syllabus attempts to introduce the course by promoting the skills to be developed if in fact the procedures are followed as stated. Included also is all necessary information such as requirements, projects, texts and examinations. Thus, from the first class students are exposed to Spanish correspondence and proper business procedures.

The first assignment is to respond to this letter. In reality it is merely readjusting the parts of a business letter and paraphrasing the body. Nevertheless, the student's first project is formal, practical, and achievable. It affords the professor insight into individual student's written language skills. All written correspondence is corrected by circling and identifying errors (verb/subject agreement, tense, etc.) Students thus reason through their own grammatical errors and submit a second draft which is then graded. Because of varying abilities and entrance level skills, it is extremely important that students realize they are competing only with themselves.

The atmosphere must be supportive and all activities relevant and purposeful.[2] Each piece of correspondence has a designated audience, usually a classmate. All graded correspondence is then placed into an individual carpeta where students apprize their individual progress and growth.

It is vital that teachers of commercial foreign languages present and utilize functional business knowledge in class. Such activities build upon students' general knowledge of business, and in addition, broaden their knowledge of those countries whose language they are learning. Therefore, the second week of class students are presented with an annotated bibliography of directories of multinational corporations. From this listing, students investigate one or more companies listed on the Spanish stock market (la Bolsa). By the third week of the semester students consult individually with the instructor regarding their selection and proper procedure for charting the company's performance. Students then simulate an investment of cien mil pesetas (one thousand dollars) in one or more of the companies. The instructor keeps an index card of each student's investment and adjustments. Students are then responsible to keep informed of their companies progress and to report bimonthly the status of their investment from the quotations of la Bolsa de Madrid to the class. Oral reports are presented in Spanish. Not only is this activity advantageous to the student's growth in business dealings, its competitive nature translates what may be a tedious activity (reading the financial section of a foreign newspaper) into an exciting experience for the student. Moreover, the brief bimonthly class presentation facilitates students' mastering of specialized vocabulary and affords them ease and confidence in what ultimately becomes a routine oral presentation.

In an effort to further develop oral and written skills based upon practical business activities, the instructor presents each student with an individually designed ad for a position with one of the multinational firms selected by another student. It is the instructor's responsibility to compose the ads so that students respond to the company of a different classmate. The first phase is to write a letter answering the ad and requesting an interview for said position. Students may again submit a second draft before the letter is graded. The letter of application is then given to the student who has that company's stock and he responds by granting an interview. In directed class activities all students prepare for a general interview. In addition the instructor works closely with each student interviewer to develop specific questions reflecting his company's specialized needs. The student applicant also is knowledgeable about the company's rating and performance from the bimonthly oral presentations. Thus each is preparing for the interview and is gaining considerable in-depth knowledge of at least two multinational companies.

Terminology of commercial transactions is introduced through the text. Students become familiar with bills of lading, lines of credit, bills of exchange, etc. by working with authentic documents obtained overseas and reproduced. Once the studetnt is comfortable with the basic terminology, the instructor provides additional terminology and abbreviations common in Spanish commercial correspondence. The next assignment is a letter to the import/export division of a different multinational company quoting F.O.B. prices requesting quotations on the international market as well as specifics on the shipping of merchandise, consular invoice, etc. Again each student both requests information and responds for the company in which he holds stock. Individual student carpetas continue to grow. This section ends with each group's reacting to an emergency situation. They may practice the newly acquired terminology orally by placing an international call or by perfecting their editing skills by preparing a telex.

It is perhaps the in-depth involvement with the daily functions of one multinational company as well as constant exposure to the multinational companies of fellow classmates, which enhances both ease of language acquisition and functional business procedures for students. Moreover, students constantly draw from skills and knowledge acquired in regular business courses (marketing, management, finance, etc.) to accomplish directed language-skill activities in banking, establishing lines of credit, letras de cambio, etc. for their individual company. An assignment on advertising, for example, increases in relevance when students view newspaper and magazine ads from the perspective of their own company or that of one of their classmates. Thus practical business skills, as well as activities for language acquisition and cultural awareness compliment each other, while reinforcing and broadening students' learning experiences.

Most international business students at Marywood (96%) study abroad. Many concentrating in Spanish attend La Universidad

Politécnica de Madrid. Students are spared initial culture shock by interchange with faculty all of whom are natives or have studied and lived abroad, by cultural contacts in the community, and by upperclassmen returning from overseas. Nevertheless, because the psychology of the culture being studied is as important in the business world as the knowledge of the language, special attention is afforded the students before their travel. Informal research requirements are placed on those students unable to study overseas. Marywood professors maintain close overseas contacts and foreign correspondence is often answered, and authentic documents, forms, articles, etc. are readily available. Moreover, current Spanish periodicals, newspapers, films, videos, and slides reinforce cultural values and attitudes which have been previously addressed in language and culture courses, advanced composition and conversation courses, and literature or professional language courses which are prerequisites for the commercial course. Students also are made aware of current research[3] and current blunders (Braniff's "sentado en cuero"), which heighten their sensitivity to both language and culture.

As today's college students continue to pursue those courses they deem practical and career relevant, commercial language courses are growing in importance and scope. Commercial language courses afford both language and business students valuable experience and expertise for today's competitive business world. At Marywood College student involvement and interest are intense. Class activities and projects encourage creative inter-student communication and cooperation. Commercial foreign language courses are attracting increased attention and may soon become the focal point of the foreign language department.

COMMERCIAL COMMUNICATION IN THE SPANISH LANGUAGE

by

Ilva Reinhardt-Childers
El Camino College
Torrance, California

COMMERCIAL COMMUNICATION
IN THE SPANISH LANGUAGE

The word "communication" has been given several meanings. The American Heritage Dictionary defines "communication" as "an act or instance of sharing, as of thoughts and feelings;"[1] Velazquez's Spanish and English Dictionary's definition is: "junction or union of one thing with another;"[2] The Bantam New College Spanish Dictionary defines "communication" as "connection"[3] and the Webster's High School Dictionary's definition is "an act or instance of transmitting; the information communicated; an exchange of information; the interchange of ideas and opinions."[4]

Without communication, life would stand still. Communication is a vital instrument of life. It is the lifeline of the business world.

In this day and age, it is no longer frivolous to speak or understand more than one language, it is often a necessity. Educators touch many lives. Students, whether they become professionals or skilled workers, or whether they choose any other path in life, should at least be able to communicate properly. This communication should not only be in English, but in another language, and for the purpose of this paper, in Spanish.

In the business world, to be bi-lingual is very often an important skill for employment survival. In today's educational system there is a need for a broader availability of business communication courses in the Spanish language at different levels. This is not only needed in our higher educational system, but should be introduced at the secondary school level.

Students need to learn not only the basics of Spanish grammar, composition and conversation, but they also need to go one step further. They should be able to apply the basics of Spanish to the career or profession they select for their lives.

There are several reasons why college students enroll in Spanish courses: they may want to learn the language for their own personal enrichment, maybe they plan to travel to a Spanish-speaking country, or maybe they want to use it as a major or minor field while working toward a degree. Others might want to study Spanish to be able to communicate, whether socially or at the job scene. Whichever reasons these students may have, they all have one goal in common: to be able to communicate.

I have designed a course outline for commercial communication in the Spanish language. Though technology and systems change from day to day, certain aspects of business communication do not change or evolve as rapidly. For instance, terminology, written communication, and even most business forms are still the same as they were in the 1950's. The memo form, for example, is exactly the same as it was thirty years ago. Letterheads have not changed much, and business envelopes have not changed at all. They are the same size and shape they used to be. Most of us know that at the present time many letterheads and business envelopes are colored, whereas thirty years ago they were mainly white.

Letterwriting in the Spanish language has changed very little. The terminology used in Spain in the 1950's, for instance, is still in use and seems somewhat obsolete in the modern business world of the eighties. Many Spanish terms could and maybe should be changed or even deleted in order to make written business communication in Spanish simpler.

The course syllabus I have developed is geared toward an individual who has completed two years (or equivalent) of Spanish. This course has been summarized as follows:

A practical course designed for students and professionals who wish to learn and use business Spanish. Different types of business letters and written business communication will be studied in-depth. Students will be exposed to an intensive business vocabulary including business words, phrases, and terminology used both in Spain and Latin America. This will aid the student in developing her/his own style of business communication. Effective oral communication is emphasized. A variety of unconventional, modern-day situations dealing with everyday business situations will be enacted in the classroom. Employment interviews in Spanish, resume writing, requests for services and business conversational skills will be developed. Also basic conversational skills necessary for reception desks, office and answering telephones will be included.

This course has been designed with four major objectives in mind:

1- To build a solid foundation of business and professional vocabulary, grammar, spelling and punctuation.

2- To prepare one to be able to communicate both orally and in writing using commonly used Spanish business phrases and terminology.

3- To expose one to the different types of written communication in Spanish, including different types of business letters.

4- To reinforce the acquired knowledge by intensely applying the vocabulary and different letter formats through written practice drills.

Included in the course are eighteen (18) different types of written communication such as:

1- Acknowledgements
2- Circulars
3- Claims
4- Collections
5- Credit application letters
6- Credit references
7- Credit rejection
8- Employment application

9- Employment rejection
10- Employment verification
11- Letters requesting product information
12- Memoranda
13- Offer of employment
14- Orders
15- Personal references
16- Recommendations
17- Reply to product information inquiry
18- Sales letters

Several sample letters of the same type are used in order to utilize different Spanish business terminology. After the sample letters have been thoroughly studied, the student is provided with data to be used in composing five (5) different pieces of Spanish business communication. Each section will include a new vocabulary list. This method will help build written communication skills.

The vocabulary not only consists of Spanish words and phrases used in Spain, but also those used in Latin America. I have compiled a dictionary for this course that consists of commercial terminology in the Spanish Language (Spanish-English, English-Spanish).

Upon completing the course, the student should know the basic vocabulary of business Spanish (words and phrases) necessary to be able to prepare business letters and pieces of written communication. It should be noted that this course is geared toward a simpler business Spanish communication rather than the very formal form used by Spanish writers.

In conclusion, the student who masters the art of communicating using the terminology and style just described will be much more effective in the business world.

ILVA REINHARDT-CHILDERS

El CAMINO COLLEGE
Torrance, California

ADDRESS (6/1-9/1/87)

1977 North 9th St.
Laramie, WY 82070

4502 Eastbrook Avenue
Lakewood, CA 90713
(213) 421-9570

FOOTNOTES

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE SIXTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE
ON
LANGUAGES AND COMMUNICATION FOR
WORLD BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

PART X.

TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION FOR BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONS

TRAINING THE PROFESSIONAL INTERPRETER FOR THE COMMERICIAL AND LEGAL SETTING

by

Dr. Eleonora K. Adams
Ogontz Campus
The Pennsylvania State University

The Interpreter in the Legal and Commercial setting

Interpreting, the oral translation of words and ideas from one language into another has been with us as long as the existence of languages themselves, but as an organized professional activity it is a relatively recent development, especially in the United States. Unfortunately, some people even today consider interpreting as a function which can be performed by any bilingual person. Europeans were quicker to recognize the need of professional training for interpreters, and long established schools can be found in Geneva, Heidelberg, Paris, London, and other European cities.

United States entered the field of training interpreters only in the recent past. However, the American penchant for technology did influence and further the profession as a whole. "In 1936 at the Paris World Fair, IBM demonstrated two-way speaking euipment, touted as being suited for language work. Recruited to demonstrate this equipment were two very dignified League of Nations interpreters who were accustomed to very formal work, the brothers Andre and Georges Kaminker" (Parallel Int. Prof. 15). This event laid the groundwork for simultaneous interpreting as we know it today.

The next important step in the development of the profession, especially of simultaneous interpreting, was the Nuremberg trials; there the interpreting service was set up by Colonel Leon Dostert, who had been Eisenhower's interpreter. He later organized the language service for the United Nations, then established at a temporary headquarters in Flushing Meadows. The equipment at that time was tremendously complicated--there was even a theory that the interpreter might electricute himself, and so he was connected by wire with a prong to some kind of swithchplate. A coordinating interpreter had to make sure that all interpreters were properly connected.

After organizing the service at the U.N., Colonel Dustert moved on to Washington and proposed to Georgetown University that they set up a Division of Interpretation and Translation. Today Georgetown is one of the best known interpreter training centers on the East Coast.

At the same time, Mr. Watson, then President of IBM, had more equipment built: interpreting booths and the accompanying equipment were going to be IBM"s contribution to world understanding. For a long time various organizations were able to rent equipment at nominal fees. Plus, IBM supplied a bevy of engineers, much to the irritation of the other equipment companies who could not afford so many technicians. As other companies entered the equipment field, some provided makeshift equipment and cut corners to the point that interpreters' work was made impossible. At times the audience could not hear the interpreters and the interpreters could not hear the speakers. Finally interpreters were forced to assert themselves and refused to work with faulty equipment. (Parallel Int. Prof. 16-17).

Such experiences eventually led the professional association of conference interpreters to negotiations with the International Standartization Organization and ultimately to guidelines and basic standards on equipment and working conditions for professional interpreters. (Parallel Int. Prof. 17) Today these standards are part of the by-laws of the prestgious, Washington based American Society of Interpreters.

The establishment of the U.N. interpreting service effected an evolution in the mode and style of interpreting on the whole. In San Francisco, at the meetings establishing the United Nations, much time was consumed because interpreting was done in the consecutive mode. The time-saving aspects of simultaneous interpretation led to its adoption not only at the United Nations but at other, non-governmental organizations as well. Interpreters who had worked exclusively in consecutive began working increasingly frequently in simultaneous, which later replaced consecutive as the preferred mode of interpreting for conferences. This process took about 15 to 20 years to develop. It was at this time of changeover that it became especially evident that a knowledge of language alone was not sufficient, that another skill was required to transpose a message from one language into another at simultaneous speed. Some people could, while others could not speak while listening to another speaker. One has to be able to speak and listen at the same time. Some very competent translators cannot work in front of a microphone, yet work very well in front of a typewriter, or in consecutive interpreting situations. Why this is we do not know.

The consecutive mode however has not disappeared and is still used and at times preferred for private meetings and for legal interpreting, both in and out of court (such as on a witness stand or during depositions).

In the old days people entered the profession through the proverbial "back door". Often these were bi-lingual individuals who just happened to be where their talents were needed, at the time they were needed. They might have started out as escort interpreters to visitors to the U. S. who came here on study tours devoted to specific trades or industries, i.e. agriculture, medicine, industrial production sponsored by the government or the private sector. Others may have done escort work for A.I.D. Eventually some escort interpreters would turn to conference work. Their training took place on the job. Others were translators, such as for example the U.N. translators, who trained at the U.N. and eventually joined the interpreting staff. Formal training is stressed more and more today -- twenty or thirty years ago graduates of interpreting schools at Geneva or Heidelberg were almost a rarity. Today however most interpreters entering the profession have had formal training.

Before we consider training, let us take a brief look at the demands that are placed on the interpreter on the job. The role of the interpreter in any setting is to transpose a message as faithfully as possible from one language into another. A good interpreter is expected to be equally comfortable with formal language, the specialized jargon of different professions and subject areas, as well as the colloquial language of the streets. At times he must be able to deal with obscure dialects and heavy accents of people who are speaking a non-native language.

In the courtroom his role may be misinterpreted by people who have never worked with an interpreter. The witness may regard him as his friend and advocate (because he may be the only one in the room who speaks his language) while seeing his own lawyer as his enemy. The witness fails to realize that the role of the interpreter is in effect one of a conduit. At times even a judge may not be familiar with a professional interpreter's function, and may treat the interpreter as an involved party. Consider also the responsibility entrusted to the interpreter. Legal implications of an inaccurate or bad translation may have far reaching consequences. Yet it is not unheard of to see a brother-in-law or a neighbor with very limited linguistic skills playing the go-btween in the middle of a crossfire between opposing lawyers who are trying to outmaneouver each other with clever rhetoric. Even an experienced court interpreter may have a problem with the technical language and phraseology that is shorthand for lawyers. For example how is an interpreter going to say: "The defendant is entitled to a Wade hearing because there is a Wade problem in the case." (The Judicial Community ... 8). I challange the notion that an English speaking witness or defendant understands everything that is going on in the courtroom: such as calls for motions or applications, when lawyers are arguing a legal or factual point, when judges are making a ruling.

The work of a conference interpreter is no less demanding. Whether he is dealing with the language of commerce or diplomacy, the responsibility for consequences of a faulty translation are squarely on the shoulders of the interpreter. Yet, more often than not there is an unfamiliar aspect to the material under discussion for which the interpreter cannot prepare even if he is briefed in advance on the gist of the topic.

But I am getting ahead of myself. These are problems often dicussed by seasoned professionals. My intention was to speak to you about the preparation of candidates for the profession. Today we no longer have to look to European schools as the only viable centers for the training of interpreters. Our candidates can receive excellent training here in the United States; they can even choose between the East and West Coast. On the West Coast we have among other choises the former Army Language School at Monterray, CA. or Monterray Institute of International Studies. On the East Coast Georgetown is well known. Personally, I am more familiar with Georgetown, both with its graduates and the faculty and staff. Georgetown University and SUNY-Binghamton are two National Resource Center sites for Translation and Interpretation, established by the U.S. Department of Education. Both schools train in translation, the written transfer between languages; interpretation, the oral transfer between languages is the purview of the Georgetown site.

In recent years other, training programs have begun to spring up, as need arises, in different parts of the country both in the public and private sector. Most are in the Spanish / English language combinations. One such program is part of the Continuing Education efforts of the Dade County Community College, in Florida. This program, under the direction of Maria Elena Cardenas, I would like to use as an excellent example of what can be done with limited resources but an energetic and dedicated teaching force. In the handout distributet to you, you will see a summary of the program and the subject matter the students are expected to master. On the reverse side of the sheet is the chart used in monitoring students' progress. The program was established to meet the needs of the Spanish community of Dade County.

Another representative college or university program is at Montclair Staate College in New Jersey, which has summer study programs for interpreters, mainly in Spanish/English. Marilyn Frankenthaler, Director of the program and of Legal Studies at Montclair has written much on the subject of interpreting and the law.

Another program offering study opportunities for legal interpreters is the Summer Institute for Court Interpretation at the Unioversity of Aarizona. This program offers a certificate upon completion.

The Center for Legal Translation and Interpretation Studies at the John Jay Colege of Criminal Justice is another alternative for candidates interested in the field of interpretation and law.

There are also private programs. One that is fairly well known among interpreters is C.A.C.I., INC. - FEDERAL, a private enterprize which because of the sound of its name and address could easily be confused with a government agency.

The formal training of a professional interpreter at a school is only the beginning -- the learning process never stops. I have yet to go out on a job for which I do not have to prepare. Ocasionally you know some basics, and that is helpful, but more than often there is an unfamiliar aspect to the material under discussion. A briefing before the session is always desirable, if not always possible; so is a trip to the library.

General reading is another thing; one has to keep reading, but how do you know what subject is going to come up? You need a good general education and you have to keep up with the times, to know what people are alluding to.

Unfortunately there are times when even the most extensive preparation is not sufficient to deal with unexpected circumstances. You may have prepared the vocabulary for a certain topic but are faced with a speaker who uses an obscure dialect, or imagine the embarassement when the phrase "blue Kalawaka" spoken by a Japanese turns out to be a reference to a "blue collar worker" and not an exotic blue-bird, as a colleague once admitted having translated. (Parallel Int. Prof. 42).

Upon entering the profession it is very important for the interpreter to join his professional association. This is another way to continue to grow in the profession. The aassociation with peers tends to keep us honest. Legal interpreters can join CITA. Conference interpreters may want to join ASI (even if they may not be immediately eligible to join, striving for membership will encourage sef-improvement). Both interpreters and translators should join the American Translators Association THE national professoinal organization with its headquarters in Ossining, N.Y.

Works Consulted

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APPENDICES

CODE OF PROFESSIONAL RESPONSIBILITY FOR INTERPRETERS, TRANSLITERATORS AND TRANSLATORS

POLICY

Many persons who come before the courts are partially or completely excluded from full participation since they are not able to use English as an effective tool of communication. It is imperative that the communication barrier this represents be removed, as far as is humanly possible, so that they are placed in the same position as a similarly situated person for whom there is no such barrier. Interpreters, transliterators and translators are indispensable for assuring that such persons enjoy equal access to justice. In view of their essential role, interpreters, transliterators and translators are hereby recognized as officers of the court.

SCOPE

This code shall be binding upon all persons who interpret, transliterate or translate in connection with--

(1) any proceeding before any court of this State;

(2) any proceeding, hearing or session of a grand jury, a surrogate or any arm of the Judiciary, including but not limited to Juvenile Conference Committees, Intensive Supervision Program Panel, Child Placement Review Boards, attorney and judicial disciplinary committees, hearing officers, arbitrators and mediators;

(3) any attorney or court in connection with any matter that is or may be brought before a court;

(4) any other activity ordered by a court or conducted under the supervision of a court.

CANON 1 HIGH STANDARDS OF CONDUCT

Interpreters, transliterators and translators should maintain high standards of conduct at all times to promote public confidence in the administration of justice.

CANON 2 FAITHFUL AND ACCURATE CONVEYANCE OF MEANING

Interpreters, transliterators and translators shall faithfully and accurately convey the meaning of the message of the source language into the target language without embellishment, omission or explanation.

CANON 3 IMPARTIALITY AND CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

Interpreters, transliterators and translators shall be impartial and avoid any appearance of bias or favoritism. They shall not only avoid conflicts of interest but also the appearance thereof.

A. They should not, as a general rule, serve in any matter in which--
   (1) they are associates, friends, or relatives of a party, of counsel for a party, or a witness;
   (2) they, their spouse or child are a party to the proceeding or have a financial interest or any other interest that would be affected by the outcome of the proceeding; or
   (3) they have been involved in the choice of counsel.

B. Prior to providing professional services in a proceeding in court, interpreters, transliterators and translators should disclose on the record the fact of having previously provided professional services on a private basis to any of the parties involved in the matter, as well as anything else that could reasonably be construed as affecting their ability to serve impartially or as constituting a conflict of interest. This disclosure shall not include confidential information.

C. Interpreters, transliterators and translators shall not provide services for remuneration that is contingent upon the outcome of a case.

D. During the course of a trial, witness and proceedings interpreters, transliterators and translators should not have contact with any of the trial's parties, witnesses, jurors, attorneys, friends or relatives of any party, except in the discharge of official functions.

CANON 4 UNOBTRUSIVENESS

Interpreters, transliterators and translators shall be as unobtrusive as possible and shall not seek to draw inappropriate attention to themselves while performing their professional duties.

A. When interpreting or transliterating during the questioning of a witness, interpreters and transliterators should convey the speaker's emphasis and emotional tone only to the degree necessary to convey the speaker's meaning, without reenacting or mimicking the speaker's tone, emotions or dramatic gestures.

B. When interpreting or transliterating during a proceeding, interpreters and transliterators should dress and conduct themselves in a manner consistent with the dignity and solemnity of the court.

C. Interpreters and transliterators shall not interject or reveal their own feelings, moods, attitudes or beliefs while performing their professional duties.

CANON 5 LIMITATIONS OF PRACTICE

Since interpreters, transliterators and translators are responsible only for enabling others to communicate, interpreters, transliterators and translators shall not take a primary role in such communications and may take a secondary role (defined below) only as is necessary for assuring an accurate and faithful interpretation, transliteration or translation.

A. Interpreters, transliterators and translators must take care to avoid activities which may be reasonably construed to constitute the practice of law.

B. Interpreters, transliterators and translators should not engage in any other activities which may be reasonably construed to constitute a service other than interpreting, transliterating or translating while engaged in such a capacity.

C. The "secondary role" for interpreters and transliterators includes such activities as seeking direction from the court when they are unable to understand or express a word or thought, or soliciting permission to be relieved from an assignment or to moderate the rate of speech. In such instances they shall identify themselves in the third person.

D. The "secondary role" for translators includes notes that the translator believes must be included to clarify something being translated. In such instances they shall identify themselves in the third person.

CANON 6 CONFIDENTIALITY

Interpreters, transliterators and translators shall keep confidential all information required by law to be confidential which they obtain during the course of their professional duties.

CANON 7 ABSTENTION FROM COMMENT

A. Interpreters, transliterators and translators shall not publicly discuss, report or offer an opinion concerning a matter in which they are or have been engaged, even when that information is not privileged or required by law to be confidential.

B. Interpreters, transliterators and translators shall not converse with jurors, witnesses, parties or attorneys except as may be required to perform their professional duties.

Canon 8 REPRESENTATION OF QUALIFICATIONS

Interpreters, transliterators and translators shall accurately and completely represent their certifications, training and pertinent experience.

CANON 9 IMPROVING SKILLS AND KNOWLEDGE

Interpreters, transliterators and translators should continually improve their skills and knowledge and shall keep informed of all statutes, rules of court and policies of the Administrative Office of the Courts which relate to the performance of their professional duties.

CANON 10 IMPEDIMENTS TO COMPLIANCE WITH CODE

A. Any interpreter, transliterator or translator who discovers anything which would impede full compliance with this code shall immediately report it to the employer or the court.

B. Interpreters, transliterators and translators shall immediately report to the presiding judge any solicitation or effort by another to induce or encourage them to violate any law, any provision of this code, or any other standard governing court interpreting and legal translating promulgated by the Administrative Office of the Courts.

ASSOCIATION OF PROFESSIONAL LEGAL INTERPRETER/TRANSLATORS OF NEW JERSEY

DRAFT

BY-LAWS

ARTICLE I - MEMBERSHIP

Membership in the Association shall not be transferable and shall take the following forms:

Class 1) FULL MEMBERSHIP - the individual seeking this class of membership must demonstrate that he/she is employed in the State of New Jersey in a capacity whose duties include legal interpreting/translating, either by official appointment or otherwise by virtue of the job they perform, be it full-time, part-time or freelance.

These members shall have full voting privileges and may be elected as Trustees of the association as provided for in these by-laws, if they are officially registered as Full Members at least 10 days in advance of the Annual Meeting.

Class 2) ASSOCIATE MEMBERSHIP - the individual seeking this class of membership must demonstrate that he/she is, or has been employed as a Professional Legal Interpreter/Translator and is either inactive in the profession or resides outside the State of New Jersey.

Class 3) STUDENT MEMBERSHIP - the individual seeking this class of membership must be a bona fide student at an accredited institution of higher education, resident of the State of New Jersey, contemplating a career as a Professional Legal Interpreter/Translator.

Class 4) HONORARY MEMBERSHIP - this class of membership may be conferred upon persons either by nomination and majority vote of the Trustees, or nomination and majority vote of the eligible members at the Annual Meeting of the Association.

Members of classes 2, 3 or 4 shall have voting privileges, but are only eligible for the status of Honorary Trustee, to act in an advisory capacity to the elected Trustees.

All members shall have the right to attend the association's annual and other meetings, to be appointed as Officers of the Association and to receive publications issued by the Association.

Upon the adoption by the State of New Jersey of any Certification Requirement for Professional Legal Interpreter/Translators, those Legal Interpreter/Translators seeking Full Member status shall show proof of such certification before being accorded this status. Non-certified candidates for membership may seek and be accorded Associate Member status until such time as they can provide proof of certification.

BY-LAWS II

ARTICLE II - FEES, DUES & ASSESSMENTS

Section a) ANNUAL DUES - The annual dues for Full Membership shall be $35.00 (thirty-five dollars) per year. The annual dues for Associate and Student Membership shall be $15.00 (fifteen dollars) per year. Honorary Members shall not be liable to pay annual dues.

Section b) FEES & ASSESSMENTS - By a two-thirds majority vote, the Trustees may levy such additional fees and assessments as they deem necessary.

Section c) CHANGE IN DUES - These annual dues may be changed by a two-thirds majority vote of the Trustees.

ARTICLE III - ASSOCIATION CALENDAR

The membership year will run from July 1 through June 30 of a given year. If a member fails to renew his/her membership before August 1, he/she shall no longer be considered to be a member of the Association. A member in default may be reinstated by paying the annual dues corresponding to the class of membership.

ARTICLE IV - CHAPTERS

At some time in the future it may become necessary and practical to form the Association into geographically based chapters. This may be accomplished by a majority vote of eligible members at an annual membership meeting, pursuant to a recommendation by the majority of the Trustees.

ARTICLE V - FINANCES

Section a) BANKING - A checking account shall be maintained in the name of the Association. The Treasurer and the Membership Secretary shall have signature authority for that account. Checks drawn on that account in any amount greater than $50.00 shall bear the signature of both the Treasurer and the Membership Secretary. Expenditures greater than $100.00 shall be approved by a majority of the Board of Trustees.

Section b) PETTY CASH - The Treasurer shall be empowered to set up a Petty Cash Fund not to exceed $50.00, and shall be required to keep an accounting of expenditures. These monies shall be used for purchase of necessary operating items.

BY-LAWS III

ARTICLE VI - BOOKS AND RECORDS

Section a) MEMBERSHIP RECORDS - The Membership Secretary shall keep current records of the Association's membership, including the member's name, home and work address, telephone number(s), whether member is a court interpreter and/or legal translator, information about member's language proficiency, class of membership and whether his/her dues are paid or in default. An alphabetical list of members, by class of membership will be available for inspection by members.

Section b) FINANCIAL RECORDS - The Treasurer shall keep a balance sheet, statement of income and expenses, annual reports filed with the Secretary of State of New Jersey, and other required filings for compliance with tax-free status. These financial records will be available for inspection by the members.

Section c) MINUTES & PUBLICATIONS - The General Secretary shall keep minutes of Board meetings and minutes of the Annual Membership Meetings, records of Notices of Meetings, and copies of all publications issued by the Association, all of which will be available for inspection by the members.

ARTICLE VII - TAX EXEMPT STATUS

The Board of Trustees may act at its own discretion, by a majority vote, to seek Federal and New Jersey tax exempt status.

ARTICLE VIII - BENEFIT PLANS

The Board of Trustees may study and recommend for adoption, by a majority vote of the eligible members at an Annual Meeting, any benefit plans, such as health or life insurance, that it deems to be in the interest of the members of the Association.

ARTICLE IX - DISSOLUTION

In the event of the dissolution of the Association, any existing assets of the Association shall be transferred to a non-profit organization whose stated purpose is to represent and further the interests, education and professionalism of professional court interpreters and legal translators.

BY-LAWS IV

ARTICLE X - ETHICS COMMITEE & ENFORCEMENT

A) ETHICS COMMITTEE

The Ethics Committee, as established in Article 8 of the Association's Constitution, is charged with the application and enforcement of the Ethical Codes and Standards of Practice.

B) ENFORCEMENT OF ETHICS AND STANDARDS

Any Professional Legal Interpreter/Translator member found, after investigation of the Ethics Committee, to be in violation of these Codes and Standards, will be subject to disciplinary action.

Any APLIT-NJ member whose conduct becomes the subject of Ethics Committee investigation will be given a hearing, upon seven days notice of such hearing, to appear before the full Ethics Committee to answer any allegation of misconduct in violation of the Code of Ethics and/or Standards of Practice.

If the Ethics Committee declares itself satisfied, by a majority vote of its members, that the allegation of misconduct was unfounded, the investigation will be terminated and all records of it destroyed.

Should the Ethics Committee decide, by a majority vote of its members, that the allegation of misconduct was well founded, then they shall proceed to apply the appropriate disciplinary action. Such disciplinary action includes:

1) WARNING

The Professional Legal Interpreter/Translator member in question will be issued a warning, and the conduct in question will be monitored by the Ethics Committee for a period of 6 months. If, after 6 months, such conduct has not been changed or corrected, a Reprimand will be issued.

2) REPRIMAND

Any Professional Legal Interpreter/Translator member will be issued a reprimand if, six months after a Warning pursuant to Section B(1) above, the conduct which gave rise to that warning has not been changed or corrected.

2) REPRIMAND, continued.

The member's name will be placed on a list which will be provided to the New Jersey State Agency responsible for the administration of interpreting/translating services. After a reprimand has been issued, the member in question will be given a period of three months to satisfy the Ethics Committee as to appropriate changes and corrections made in the conduct which gave rise to the original warning, and of the member's intention to maintain acceptable ethical and professional standards of practice in the future.

3) EXPULSION & PUBLICATION

Any Professional Legal Interpreter/Translator member who, within three months of being issued a Reprimand pursuant to Section B(2) above, does not furnish the Ethics Committee with the evidence of corrected conduct and the assurance of his/her intention to maintain high standards of ethics and professional practice in the future, shall be expelled from the Association. In addition to this expulsion, the expelled member's name will be furnished to the New Jersey State Agency responsible for the administration of interpreting/translating services, and to any other party the Ethics Committee deems appropriate.

The following conduct constitutes grounds for immediate expulsion:

a) Criminal conviction for accepting or soliciting a bribe from any interested party in any legal matter or a gross violation of the Professional Legal Interpreter/ Translator's obligation to maintain absolute impartiality with regard to the parties in a legal matter in which the member has participated in a professional capacity (Canons 2 and 3).

b) Gross violation of the Professional Legal Interpreter/ Translator's obligation to maintain the confidentiality of all information pertaining to a legal matter in which he/she has participated in a professional capacity (Canon 2).

c) Gross violation of the Client/Interpreter privilege, except when acting pursuant to court order (Canon 2).

d) Repeated deliberate misrepresentation by a member of his/her qualifications, training or credentials as a Legal Interpreter/Translator or repeated deliberate misrepresentation of the fact that a member has been issued a Warning or Reprimand by the Ethics Committee of the Association (Canon 4).

REVISED 9/18/86

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PROPOSED

ASSEMBLY COMMITTEE SUBSTITUTE

FOR

ASSEMBLY BILL NO. 1911

JE - 0072
SR JE - 0077
TR JE - 0054

800

AN ACT concerning the selection, qualification, employment and supervision of legal interpreters and making an appropriation therefore.

BE IT ENACTED by the Senate and General Assembly of the State of New Jersey:

1. The Legislature finds and declares that it shall be the policy of this State to secure the rights of persons who are unable readily to understand or communicate in the English language and who consequently cannot be fully protected in legal proceedings unless qualified interpreters are available to assist them.

2. As used in this act:

a. "Appointing authority" means the presiding judge or justice of any court; the chairman of any board, commission, or authority; the director or commissioner of any department or agency; or any other person presiding at any hearing or other proceeding in which a qualified interpreter is required pursuant to this act.

b. "A person unable readily to understand or communicate in the English language" means a person who, because the person is hearing, speech or language impaired or has a mother tongue or native language other than English, is unable to speak English or to comprehend what others say in English to the extent that the person is unable to use English effectively as a functional tool of communication for sending and receiving information, thereby partially or completely excluding the person from full participation in a legal proceeding, inhibiting the person's understanding of a criminal charge or the nature of a legal proceeding, or substantially prejudicing the person's rights.

c. "Principal party in interest" means a person who is a named party in any proceeding or who will be directly affected by the decision or action which may be made or taken.

d. "Qualified interpreter" means an interpreter or an intermediary interpreter, (1) certified by the Administrative Office of the Courts for proceedings in the Superior, tax or municipal court, before a Surrogate, a grand jury, any arm of the judiciary or court support service, or (2) for all other proceedings covered by this act, an interpreter certified by the agency.

e. "Intermediary interpreter" means an interpreter who has received the Reverse Skills Certificate or the Comprehensive Skills Certificate from the National Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf.

f. "Qualified translator" means a translator certified to translate documents pursuant to this act.

g. "Qualified speech or language interpreter" means an interpreter certified by the American Speech Language Hearing Association and licensed by the Division of Consumer Affairs of the Department of Law and Public Safety.

h. A person shall be deemed "unable to readily understand or communicate in the English language" when (1) representation of such is made by counsel or pro se litigant; or (2) the appointing authority on his own motion finds a person unable to readily understand or communicate in the English language. The appointing authority may reject a representation made under this subsection only when a reliable and valid test for communicative competence has been administered by a trained examiner and the applicant has been found to be sufficiently communicatively competent in the English language. If the test reveals evidence of a false representation, the presiding officer may invoke any sanctions to which he is entitled, including contempt.

3. The appointing authority shall appoint a qualified interpreter and, if needed, an intermediary interpreter to assist all persons who are unable readily to understand and communicate in the English language throughout the proceedings and in preparation with counsel as follows:

a. In any case before any court or grand jury in which a person who is unable readily to understand and communicate in the English language is a party, either as a complainant, defendant or witness or as a parent of a juvenile;

b. At all stages in any proceeding of a judicial or quasi-judicial nature before any State agency or county or municipal governing body or agency in which a person who is unable readily to understand and communicate in English is a principal party in interest, either as a complainant, defendant, witness or supplicant, or as a parent of a juvenile;

c. In any proceedings in which a person who is unable readily to understand or communicate in the English language may be subjected to confinement or criminal sanction or in any proceeding preliminary thereto, including a coroner's inquest, grand jury proceedings and proceedings related to mental health commitments. A person who is unable readily to understand or communicate in the English language, who has been arrested and who is otherwise eligible for release, shall not be held in custody pending the arrival of an interpreter.

d. In any proceeding of hearings of a surrogate or any arm of the judiciary, including but not limited to, juvenile conference committees, intensive supervision program panels, child placement review boards, attorney and judicial disciplinary committees and hearing officers; and

e. Any court support service.

4. In the case of a person who cannot readily understand or communicate in the English language because of a hearing, speech or language impairment, if the appointing authority finds that the interpretation is not satisfactory and that an intermediary interpreter will improve the quality of interpretation and assure effective communication, the appointing authority shall appoint an intermediary interpreter to assist the qualified interpreter. An intermediary interpreter shall be subject to the same provisions that govern a qualified interpreter under this act.

5. In any action or proceeding in which an interpreter is required to be appointed, the court or administrative authority may not commence proceedings until the appointed interpreter is in full view of and spatially situated to assure proper communication with the person involved as a participant who is unable readily to understand or communicate in the English language.

6. Whenever an appointing authority is required to appoint an interpreter, the appointing authority shall appoint a qualified interpretor. If the appointing authority finds that the qualified interpreter is inadequate to meet the needs of the person who is unable readily to understand or communicate in the English language the appointing authority shall appoint another qualified interpreter who does meet these needs.

7. a. Unapproved legal interpreters and translators may be used when the need for a legal interpreter and translator for a language which rarely appears in New Jersey's courts cannot be met given the available pool of approved legal interpreters and translators; or

b. When an approved legal interpreter or a hearing, speech or language impaired person believes that an intermediary interpreter is needed.

c. The reasons that justify the use of an unapproved interpreter shall be stated on the record.

d. Any time that a court determines that an unapproved interpreter must be used, the court shall satisfy itself on the record that the proposed interpreter:

(1) Is capable of communicating effectively with the officers of the court and the person for whom the interpreter would interpret;

(2) Knows and understands the code of ethics for legal interpreters, pursuant to section 10 of this act;

(3) Will comply with these standards of the code of ethics, (any provisions which cannot be honored shall be noted on the record); and

(4) Has taken the same oath that all legal interpreters must take in a court proceeding, pursuant to section 9 of this act.

8. a. The State Division of the Deaf in the Department of Labor, created pursuant to P.L. 1941, c. 197 (C. 34:1-69.1 et seq.) shall maintain a list of qualified interpreters and provide the list to appointing authorities upon request. The Administrative Office of the Courts shall regularly obtain a list of qualified interpreters from the New Jersey Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf and ensure that the list contains the most current information available from the registry.

b. The Audiology and Speech - Language Pathology Advisory Committee within the Division of Consumer Affairs, Department of Law and Public Safety, created pursuant to P.L. 1983, c. 420 (C. 45:3B-1 et seq.), will maintain a list of qualified interpreters for the speech or language impaired and provide the list to appointing authorities upon request.

c. Each agency required by this act to utilize qualified interpreters or translators shall maintain a list thereof and provide the list upon request, which list has been provided by the Administrative Office of the Courts in accordance with the provisions of this act. The Administrative Office of the Courts shall maintain a list of interpreters and translators qualified to serve the Judiciary, and shall provide such list upon request.

9. a. Before acting as interpreter in any court, an appointed interpreter shall swear or affirm to interpret accurately and impartially, to use appropriate modes of interpretation and to abide by the canon of ethics and applicable standards for interpreters approved by the Supreme Court.

b. Before acting as an interpreter in any legal proceeding before a body or agency other than a court, an appointed interpreter shall swear or affirm to make a true interpretation, to communicate accurately the statement of the person in the English language to the best of the interpreter's skill and judgment, to honor the canon of ethics which govern the professional conduct and practice of interpreters and to abide by any applicable rules promulgated by the appointing authority before whom the interpretor is appearing.

c. The following oath shall be administered, thus binding the legal interpreter to his affirmation throughout his employment:

On my word of honor, as an official legal interpreter (or legal translator) and officer of the courts of New Jersey, I, __________________________, swear to interpret accurately and impartially, to be true to the code of ethics for legal interpreters and or translators, to follow all official guidelines for legal interpreting and translating for the courts, and to discharge all of the solemn duties and obligations of legal interpretation and translation.

10. Legal interpreters and translators shall abide by the following code of ethics. A legal interpreter or translator who violates any of the provisions of this code is subject to the charge of contempt, disciplinary action or any other sanction that may be imposed by law.

a. Legal interpreters and translators shall be required to know and observe all statutes, rules of court and policies of the Administrative Office of the Court which relate directly to the execution of their professional services.

b. Legal interpreters and translators shall maintain an impartial disposition in all matters and toward all parties and shall avoid any appearance of bias; avoid conflicts of interest or the appearance thereof in matters in which they serve; clearly indicate their role as interpreter asked to participate in interviews.

(1) Prior to providing professional services in a matter, legal interpreters and translators shall disclose to the attorney or party who has requested their services all prior involvement they have had with parties and counsel for any party involved in the matter.

(2) Legal interpreters and translators shall disclose to the court and contending parties all instances in which they are acquainted with or related to any juror or witness and the extent of the acquaintance.

(3) Prior to providing professional services in a proceeding in court, legal interpreters and translators should first divulge to the presiding judge, all participating counsel and pro se parties any and all professional services which they previously provided in connection with the matter to be adjudicated.

(4) Prior to providing professional services in a proceeding in court, legal interpreters and translators shall divulge to the presiding judge, all participating counsel and pro se parties anything that might affect their ability to serve impartially or might constitute a conflict of interest; and any condition which impinges upon the objectivity of the interpreter or affects his professional independence constitutes a conflict of interest.

(5) Legal interpreters and translators shall be unobtrusive during court proceedings so that their presence permits an atmosphere as close as possible to one in which there is no language barrier; they shall not draw attention to their interpretation, and should make every effort to control overt expressions of opinion, such as surprise, sympathy, or disgust while interpreting for defendants or witnesses.

(6) Legal interpreters shall position themselves so that when interpreting witness testimony, they stand in a place where they do not obstruct the view of the witness by the judge, jury or attorneys and they shall speak at a rate, quality and volume of speech that can easily be heard and understood throughout the courtroom.

(7) Legal interpreters shall position themselves so that when interpreting for a party at counsel table, they speak or sign in an unobstrusive manner, yet one which enables the party for whom they are interpreting to understand all of their interpretation.

(8) The fees and remuneration of a legal interpreter or translator shall never be contingent upon the success or failure of the case in which he or she has been engaged.

c. Legal interpreters and translators shall protect confidential information and refrain from commenting about the case.

(1) Legal interpreters and translators shall not communicate information which has been obtained in the course of their duties but not made public, including grand jury proceedings and all confidential proceedings to anybody at any time except as required of attorneys by law.

(2) Legal interpreters and translators shall neither discuss or report on any matter in which they are engaged, or to any person, except in their official capacity. Accordingly, they should not have contact with parties, witnesses, jurors, attorneys, friends or relatives of any party during the pendency of any cause in which they are engaged, except as may be required for the proper discharge of official functions or as may be required by law.

(3) Legal interpreters and translators shall not comment or render an opinion on the propriety or impropriety of a verdict in any matter in which they have previously served; nor shall they comment at any time upon the conduct of such proceedings, except as may be required by law.

d. Once having accepted or undertaken an assignment in any court, legal interpreters and translators shall be prompt in arriving in the courtroom or other place where services are to be rendered or in completing the translation. When they cannot fulfill this obligation due to any circumstances beyond their control, they shall immediately report to the appropriate person their inability to perform as agreed.

e. Legal interpreters and translators should accept assignments only when they are confident of their capacity to perform in accordance with this code.

f. Legal interpreters and translators shall convey all of the meaning of the source language in the target language without adding to, or leaving out or modifying anything given the cultural, syntatic and lexical limit of the target language.

(1) The interpreter shall always utilize the first person singular when interpreting for witnesses or in any situation in which a conversation between two or more parties occurs in the courtroom or similar setting.

(2) The interpreter shall always interpret what is said thoroughly and accurately, omitting nothing and stating precisely what has been said, given the exigencies of grammer and syntax in both languages.

(3) The level or style of language used in the source shall be preserved in the target language. Simple, crude or obscene language shall not be dressed up nor shall sophisticated and erudite language be simplified, slang terms and phrases should be rendered in equivalent slang in the target language; if an idiom, proverb or saying cannot be literally rendered, the interpreter shall seek an equivilent idiom or relate the meaning of the original idiom or saying.

(4) When interpreting for a sworn witness, legal interpreters shall interpret each statement, even if it appears nonresponsive or confusing, and even if the witness believes he or she is making a statement to be heard only by the interpreter.

(5) Apart from the conveyance of an untranslatable idiom, as set forth above, legal interpreters and translators may explain or clarify the meaning of a word or phrase only when directed to do so by a judge or according to the standards promulgated by the Administrative Office of the Courts.

(6) Legal interpreters and translators shall not explain paralinguistic gestures or other features of body language except when directed to do so by a judge or unless they represent a significant part of the communication repertoire of the non-speaking person.

(7) When legal interpreters discover that they have made an error, they shall, if still interpreting for a witness, correct the error at once, first identifying themselves for the record. If they realize an error after the testimony has been completed, they shall request a bench or lobby conference with the judge and attorney(s) and make the correction on the record.

g. Since the only function of legal interpreters is to provide a median for enabling speakers of different languages to communicate with one another, they shall not be active participants in connection with any interpreting assignment, except as provided in this section or as may be provided by standards promulgated by the Administrative Office of the Courts.

(1) At no time shall legal interpreters converse with a juror, a witness, a party or an attorney except as permitted by standards promulgated by the Administrative Office of the Courts.

(2) Legal interpreters and translators shall not engage in activities which may reasonably be construed to constitute the practice of law such as providing legal advice and explaining legal rights or obligations. A legal interpreter or translator may convey legal advice from an attorney to a person only while that attorney is giving it. A legal interpreter who is also an attorney may not serve in both capacities in the same matter.

(3) Legal interpreters and translators shall not explain forms, services or otherwise act as counselors or advisors. A legal interpreter or translator may translate on a form for a person who is filling out the form, but may not explain or interpret the form for such a person.

(4) Legal interpreters may be active participants only when they are unable to understand the meaning of a source message or to convey the meaning in the target source message or to convey the meaning in the target language; when they believe they are no longer able to serve in a manner completely free of bias; when they find that continuing to serve would violate a law or provision of this code; or when, while interpreting in the simultaneous mode, the rate of the speaker exceeds the interpreter's ability to keep up; or when, while interpreting in the consecutive mode, the length of a statement to be interpreted approaches the interpreter's maximum capacity for recall. If any of the foregoing situations arise, legal interpreters shall immediately advise the parties and the judge, if any, and await the judge's decision.

h. Legal interpreters and translators shall accurately and completely represent their certifications, training and pertinent experience and be prepared to produce evidence of same upon request.

(1) Legal interpreters or translator shall not imply or indicate that they have a certificate or license unless they have passed all parts of the certifying or licensing examination.

(2) Legal interpreters and translators shall not imply or indicate that they enjoy a certain status unless they can produce evidence of such upon request.

i. Legal interpreters and translators shall immediately report to the presiding judge any solicitation or effort by another to induce or encourage them to violate any law or provision of this code, or any provision of standards governing legal interpreting or translating promulgated by the Administrative Office of the Courts.

11. a. An appointed interpreter shall receive a fee which is commensurate with the professional skills and knowledge required for interpreting services, together with the interpreter's actual expenses for travel and waiting time.

b. The Supreme Court shall establish rules governing the method for payment and the amount of the fee for interpreting services performed in connection with any judicial proceeding or other proceeding within its jurisdiction. The fee and actual expenses shall be paid by the court in which the interpreting services are performed.

c. In the case of any proceeding before a State agency or a county or municipal governing body or agency, the fee for interpreting services shall be paid by the agency or governing body.

12. a. The right of a person who is unable readily to understand and communicate in the English language to be interpreter shall not be waived unless the person requests a waiver in writing and in the person's native language.

b. No one shall refuse a legal interpreter and or translator if either counsel or the court deems one to be necessary.

13. Any information that the interpreter gathers from a person who is unable readily to understand and communicate in the English language pertaining to any proceeding then pending shall at all times remain confidential and privileged on an equal basis with the attorney-client privilege.

14. The Supreme Court shall promulgate standards governing the appointment, qualifications, duties and appropriate utilization of interpreters during judicial proceedings.

15. Any State agency or county or municipal governing body or agency authorized to appoint interpreters may create and maintain full time and part time interpreting positions as may be justified by the volume of proceedings before that body or agency for which interpretive services are required.

16. Until such time as a sufficient number of interpreters have qualified pursuant to the provisions of this act, the Administrative Office of the Courts shall approve any person seeking to act as an interpreter in any court and the body or agency required to appoint an interpretor shall approve any person seeking to act as an interpretor before that body or agency. In order to be approved as an interpreter pursuant to the provisions of this section, a person must demonstrate pertinent training, skills, knowledge and expertise. Any interpreter for a deaf or hearing impaired person must be certified by the National Registry of Interpretors for the Deaf, Inc.

17. a. The Administrative Director of the Courts shall prescribe and certify the qualifications of persons who may serve as qualified interpreters or translators.

b. The chief administrator of every agency covered under this act shall adopt the certification administered by the Administrative Office of the Courts and utilize the list of interpreters developed by the Administrative Office of the Courts pursuant to section 8 of this act.

c. Interpreters for the deaf certified under a. or b. of this section shall also have been certified by the National Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc.

d. Any interpreter for the speech or language impaired person shall by certified by the American Speech Language Hearing Association.

18. a. Except as authorized by section 16 of this act, no person shall engage in the practice of legal interpreting or legal translation without first having obtained certification, except that, all practicing legal interpreters and legal translators may continue to practice until the date when the results of the first certification are published.

b. Judges shall never function as an interpreter or translator and shall always speak in the English language in any legal proceeding.

c. The counsel shall never function as an interpreter or translator and shall always speak in the English language except in confidential communication with the client.

19. There is appropriated from the General Fund $870,000.00 to the Administrative Office of the Courts to fund interpreting services for the superior and municipal courts. There is also appropriated from the General Fund $300,000.00 to the Chancellor of Higher Education in the Department of Higher Education this sum is to be used for the development of curriculum, materials, and programs for the education of legal interpreters and legal translators under the coordination of an institution of higher education, to be designated by the chancellor. It is also to be used for the implementation of these programs at designated institutions of higher education throughout the State.

20. The Administrative Office of the Courts shall submit to the Legislature within 24 months of the effective date of this act a report containing its findings and recommendations concerning the implementation of this act.

21. The following are repealed:

N.J.S. 2A:11-28;

N.J.S. 2A:11-29;

N.J.S. 2A:11-30; and

P.L. 1983, c. 564 (C. 34:1-69.7 to C. 34:1-69.17).

22. This act shall take effect immediately and section 16 of this act shall expire five years following enactment.

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CAUGHT IN THE MIDDLE: THE GAMES OF SIMULTANEOUS AND CONSECUTIVE INTERPRETATION IN THE EASTERN BLOC COUNTRIES

BY

Dana N. Lascu
Northern Illinois University

Title: Caught in the Middle: The Games of Simultaneous and Consecutive Interpretation in the Eastern Block Countries

Length: Fifteen Minutes

Primary Audience: Business and Language Educators (all languages)

Abstract

Business people travelling to Eastern Europe frequently communicate with government and government agencies´ representatives with the help of a consecutive interpreter. In the same direction, most meetings involving larger groups will benefit from the services of a simultaneous interpreter.

In both situations described above, all the parties involved may be fluent in a common language. What is then the role of the interpreter in either of the two situations?

This ~~paper~~ presentation will look at the interpreter in the Eastern European Block countries as a facilitating and/or distorting medium whose role is to convey the desired, rather than the actual, message. The ~~paper~~ presentation will also analyze the role of the interpreter as a scape goat moulded to buffer the political and business blunders of the negociators and as a source of "reflection time" - the government representative understands the Western businessman´s message and uses the translation time to reflect over an adequate answer.

Author: Dana N. Hanna

Address: Office of International Training
and Consultation
Northern Illinois University
DeKalb, IL 60115

Office Phone: (815) 753-1098

Home Phone: (815) 756-5954

COURT INTERPRETERS & TRANSLATORS: DEVELOPING ETHICAL AND PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS

a paper prepared for presentation at

The Sixth Annual Conference on Languages and Communication
for World Business and the Professions

by

Richard Funston, J.D., Ph.D.
Professor of Political Science and University Prelaw Advisor
San Diego State University

The role of the language professional is an emerging one in modern society, in which cultural interchange, propelled by technological advance and political transformations, has outrun linguistic capabilities. Particularly is this true in the United States which, within this generation, has experienced and is experiencing an unprecedented in-migration of population--both legal and illegal, as defined by American immigration law.

These immigrants to the United States are often not able to communicate in English. Yet, as people everywhere, they become involved in disputes--disputes among themselves, disputes with others (who may or may not be English-speakers), and disputes with government authorities. Resolution of these disputes is, in many cases, committed to the courts. The phenomenon of the non-English speaker as party or witness to a legal dispute, thus, is increasing in the American judicial system.[1]

This phenomenon, in turn, raises questions about what standards, if any, we should expect from those who translate or interpret for the courts. How should they be selected? How trained? And, once chosen, what ethical standards should they be required to meet? Lawyers, after all, are required to adhere to their state codes of professional responsibility. Shouldn't the same be true of court interpreters and translators?[2]

Presently, the answers to those questions appear to minimal at best. We, at San Diego State University, are considering the creation of a joint certificate program in court interpretation and translation with California Western School of Law, a private, "free-standing" (i.e. not affiliated with an undergraduate campus) law school, with whom we have an institutional interchange agreement. Indeed, this paper is an outgrowth of my research into what we need to do to create such a certificate program.

The answer(s) to that question, as I discovered, is (are) (a) not much and (b) you're on your own. For the federal courts Spanish language interpreters[3] are certified by examination through the Administrative Office of the Federal Courts. Interpreters in other languages are certified, also by examination, on an individualized, case-by-case basis.

In California, Spanish language interpreters may take an exam given by the State Personnel Board that qualifies them to apply to individual courts to become"recommended" court interpreters. The courts themselves may require additional tests. For Spanish and seven additional languages--Arabic, Cantonese, Japanese, Korean, Portugese, Tagalog, and Vietnamese--certification for administrative hearings is also available.

As a practicing member of the California and federal bars, I was somewhat disconcerted to discover that no formal training or familiarity with the legal system was required for certification, only the passing of an exam. So, I phoned my friend, Dr. Marilyn Frankenthaler, who runs what is probably the best court interpretation program in this country at Montclair State College in New Jersey--only to find that things weren't much more structured there.

Admission to court interpretation is much the same as in California--determined by examination. Court interpreters and translators in New Jersey have organized a professional association, the Association of Professional Legal Interpreters/Translators of New Jersey (APLIT-NJ).[4] But membership in the organization is open to anyone who demonstrates "that he/she is employed in the State of New Jersey in a capacity whose duties include legal interpreting/translating, either by official appointment or otherwise by virtue of the job they perform, be it full-time, part-time, or freelance." (Subcategories of Associate, Student, and Honorary membership are also provided for by the Association's By-Laws.) In other words, qualification

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for membership in the organization is left to the determination of other agencies. Moreover, membership in APLIT-NJ is not required for appointment as a court interpreter.

Yet New Jersey appears to be well ahead of other states including California, in the organization of its court interpreters. Is this any way to build a profession? With all due respect, I submit that it is not, and I suggest that the following be considered, by way of developing professional and ethical standards for the legal linguist professional.

ETHICAL STANDARDS

Is the legal interpreter to be considered an organ of the court? Or an extension of the client? Presently, the position of court interpreters, both in New Jersey and California, is that the interpreter is an officer of the court. But is this consistent with the adversary system?

The practice of law is, in a very real sense, the manipulation of language. If a litigant is deprived of an interpreter of his or her own choosing, he or she may be as effectively hampered in presenting his or her case as if he or she were deprived of the right to select his or her attorney. After all, restating ideas in another language isn't a simple matter of word-by-word conversion. Language must convey the intended meaning, while retaining grammatical, syntactic, and idiomatic accuracy.

For similar reasons the translator on the so-called "business" side of legal practice (i.e. non-litigation) should be considered, just as the attorney, as an extension of the client. The client wants his own attorney, not opposing counsel, to draw up an agreement, in order to be sure that what he wants in the document is actually there. So, too, where the meaning of a document in a foreign language is at issue, the client wants his own translator to determine what the document actually says or may say.[5]

I recognize that treating the interpreter as an extension of the client will mean that, in any case in which a language other than English is to play a role, both sides will need to have their own interpreter. This will create some problems of cost, although in a business setting all parties could agree to retain a single interpreter or translator, just as they may now agree to have a single attorney draft a particular document, such as a partnership agreement.[6]

In litigation, however, treating the interpreter as an extension of the client would also present some procedural difficulties. Would putative errors in interpretation be objectionable, just as violations of the evidentiary rules are objectionable? It seems to me that they should be. But, then, the court would need have its own interpreter to arbitrate the dispute. And who would raise the objection? The interpreter or the attorney? When would such an objection have to be made? Finally, the courts would have to work out (I hardly have the time in this presentation to do more than just suggest the problem.) whether the trial court's rulings on such objections to alleged interpretive errors are appealable grounds for reversal of the judgment.[7]

Nevertheless, it seems to me that, rather than strive for a probably unattainable impartiality, it is appropriate to treat the interpreter/ translator as an assistant to counsel, much as paralegals are regarded. Not the least of my reasons is that, from such a conception, certain ethical consequences would follow.

Confidentiality: Like the paralegal, the legal linguist professional would be subject to the rules of confidentiality embraced by the attorney-client privilege. We have a well-developed body of case law surrounding this doctrine, and we should not have to create a new set of rules of confidence for an allegedly impartial officer of the court.

Copyright: In the literary field, translators usually own rights to their own work. With legal material, however, no rights at all should be assigned to the translator.

Conflict of interest: As with confidentiality, there is a corpus of judicial decision that could be applied directly to legal interpreters and translators, if they were analogized to professional legal assistants, rather than being treated as impartial officers of the court. For example, an interpreter who had previously worked for the other side in a related matter would, without any imputation of wrongdoing, be automatically disqualified from participation in a subsequent case. To proceed on the theory that the interpreter was "impartial" in the first matter and, therefore, may be expected to be impartial in this one, I think, places the interpreter in an impossible situation.

Or, to take another example, the legal interpreter would become subject to the "attorney/witness" rule. This canon holds that one shall not be an advocate and a witness (except as to a few, limited, minor, and very formal matters) in the same cause. If faced with a choice between the two roles, the attorney's conflict is to be resolved in favor of being a witness and withdrawal as counsel. Should not the same choice govern the behavior of legal interpreters?

Unauthorized practice of law: Treating the interpreter/translator as part of a team (including attorney, legal assistant, interpreter, legal secretary, and possible expert witnesses) would also resolve (by avoidance) the linguist's problem of engaging in the unauthorized practice of law. It is difficult, if not impossible, to understand how one can translate a legal document for a client without "explaining" it to him. Yet such explanation could be construed as the unauthorized practice of law, subjecting the interpreter to potential criminal and civil liability. But not if the interpreter is seen as an expert employed by counsel to assist in the preparation of the client's case.

Finally, I would like to see a requirement that legal interpreters and translators carry mandatory professional liability insurance. In California we are presently fighting a battle over whether attorneys should be required to have malpractice coverage. All of the arguments against such a requirement strike me as fatuous--or, if they are to be taken seriously, then they argue for the repeal of the Penal Code, too. If attorneys should be required to carry professional liability coverage, as I believe they should be, then so, too, should legal interpreters and translators.

Steps in these directions, i.e. the development of ethical standards for court interpreters/translators have been taken. The New Jersey Association of Professional Legal Interpreters/Translators (APLIT-NJ) has developed a Code of Professional Responsibility for Interpreters, Transliterators and Translators that addresses many of the concerns, though not all, that I have raised.[8] Moreover, legislation is now pending in the New Jersey State Assembly that would incorporate some aspects the APLIT-NJ Code into statutory law.[9]

I have neither the time nor the space to engage in a detailed critique of either the New Jersey professional association's code or the pending legislation. Indeed, APLIT-NJ has raised several objections to the proposed statute, and it may be substantially revised before passage, if it is enacted at all. Copies of both the APLIT-NJ Code of Professional Responsibility and the pending bill are attached as appendices to this paper; the interested reader can review them and compare their provisions at his or her leisure.

For my purposes today I wish to draw attention to only two aspects shared by both the APLIT-NJ Code and the pending New Jersey legislation. First, both adopt the position that the legal interpreter/translator shall be an "impartial" officer of the court, rather than an extension of the client or client's counsel. For reasons I have already put forward, I believe this to be an incorrect position not consonant with the actual operation of the American (adversary) legal system and one that only magnifies the difficulties in framing a code of professional conduct for court interpreters/translators.

Second, both the APLIT-NJ Code and the pending New Jersey legislation amount to little more than moral exhortations because they lack effective effective, organized enforcement mechanisms. The APLIT-NJ By-Laws create an Ethics Committee to police the Code of Professional Responsibility and provide for a variety of sanctions, including warnings, reprimands, and expulsion. But the sanctions lack any real teeth, because the organization has no control over who shall actually be appointed as legal interpreters/translators. At best, APLIT-NJ can only publish to the appropriate judicial and administrative agencies the fact of a member's expulsion and hope the appointing agency will take this into account when making assignments. But it must be borne in mind that membership in the organization is not a prerequisite to service as a legal interpreter or translator in New Jersey in the first place. If one never joins the organization, one cannot be expelled, however grievous one's professional conduct.

The pending legislation is similarly inadequate. It relies on the court's power to punish for contempt as the means to discipline unprofessional or improper behavior by an interpreter/translator. But it provides no organizational mechanism by which such conduct outside the presence of the court, e.g., conflict of interest, shall be brought to the attention of the court. Moreover, any one familiar with the actual operation of the American judiciary must wonder what priority already overburdened magistrates will give to such complaints, even if they are brought. Finally, the New Jersey legislation, providing as it does for professional sanctions without notice or hearing, may be subject to serious constitutional challenge on due process grounds.

From the deficiencies of these two well-meaning attempts to create standards of professional ethics for legal interpreters and translators it seems apparent that what is wanted is a professional organization, paralleling the organized bar, that, either by statute or rule of court, has the authority (1) to control admission to the profession of legal interpreter/translator, (2) to promulgate a code of professional conduct, and (3), subject to judicial (or administrative agency) ratification, to discipline members for transgression of the ethics rules.

PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS

It seems equally apparent that the foregoing cannot be achieved until there is some agreed upon certification process, some rite of passage, if you will. Although literally hundreds of translators and interpreters currently work in California on a full-time or part-time basis, few of them are trained to handle detailed legal translations or interpretations. To say you're a translator is one of the easiest things in the world to do, all you need are a few business cards.

Therefore, I would suggest that the following requirements become, either by legislative or judicial action, prerequisites to admission to the profession of legal linguist. Let me also, however, emphasize that I am a novice in this field; and, as a non-linguist attorney, I am willing to be educated as I go about designing a program for San Diego State University and California Western School of Law.

Let me also note that I am not proposing the following criteria to supplant an examination, but to supplement one. In fact, I believe that the legal interpreter/translator should have to pass not only written and oral (at least for interpretation) exams in the subject language but also an examination in English designed to test the applicant's understanding of the meanings of American legal terminology. However, just as one must (generally speaking) have graduated from law school before one may sit for the bar examination, it seems reasonable to me to require that a candidate for certification as a legal interpreter/translator should be required to meet certain educational criteria before being permitted to take the certification examination. Indeed, I would hope that a Certified Legal Interpreter/Translator would become a recognized, standardized, and accredited academic certificate.

I suggest that such a certificate, like the most reputable paralegal certificates, should be a post-baccalaureate certificate. Perhaps the certificate might be incorporated into Master's degree level study in the language to be certificated. In any case, formal study of the language at the undergraduate level should be required: native fluency should not be enough.

Second, the certificated interpreter/translator should have some training in American legal procedure. Preferably this training would be acquired in a law school accredited by the American Bar Association. At a minimum this education would involve a class in legal structure and process (such as is routinely offered to foreign law students seeking the Master of Comparative Laws degree), classes in civil and criminal procedure, and a course in some substantive law field (e.g., contracts, torts, property, criminal law). For a specialization the certificate candidate might take one or two additional courses in a particular substantive field (e.g., advanced criminal procedure, international business transactions).

And perhaps the certificate candidate should be required to participate in--or at least observe--the mock trial or client counseling competitions.

Finally, the certificated interpreter/translator should be required to demonstrate periodically continued proficiency in the language, either by examination or by documented travel to the country or region in which the particular language or dialect is spoken.

CONCLUSION

As I have before, I acknowledge that my outline for a curriculum for certification as a legal interpreter/translator is tentative. I look forward to input (being corrected in the error of my ways?) from those more familiar with the linguistic difficulties involved than I.

I also acknowledge that my proposals would, if adopted, cost money and raise the fees of trained court language professionals.[10] Speaking to a group of such professionals, I doubt that that will not be well-received. But I also note that the pending New Jersey legislation is not only a bill "concerning the selection, qualification, employment, and supervision of legal interpreters" but is also one "making an approrpiation therefore," including $300,000 to higher education for the development of curriculum materials and program, i.e. a response to a concern about which I have just spoken. To my mind, such an appropriation will contribute to the quality of legal justice in America and, thus, is money well-spent.

FOOTNOTES

1. See generally Diane Wagner, "The Fine Art of Translation," California Lawyer (June 1986), pp. 27-28 & 87-89.

2. Although the focus of this paper is upon those language professionals doing interpretation in or translation for courts, my observations about the professional training of and etchical standards for such persons need not be confined to a judicial setting. I believe they are equally relevant for those practicing before administrative agencies, particularly those agencies that conduct trial-type hearings, as well as those retained by private attorneys, as for example to translate a contract or interpret at a deposition.

3. Technically, translation usually refers to written material and interpretation refers to oral conversation. Throughout this paper, however, I use the terms interchangeably, although at some points from the context it will be apparent to the reader that I am referring to only one or another of these two functions.

4. A copy of the APLIT-NJ By-Laws is attached as Appendix I to this paper. I wish to thank Ms. Carmen S. Barros, President of the Association of Professional Legal Interpreters/Translators of New Jersey for kindly furnishing me with all of the materials that are attached as appendices to this paper.

In California there are at least two (competing?) associations of professional legal interpreters, but neither appears to have achieved either the membership (measured as a proportion of those practicing before the state's courts) or the organizational sophistication of APLIT-NJ.

5. See Godfrey Harris, Commercial Translations: A Business-Like Approach to Obtaining Accurate Translations (Los Angeles: Harris/Ragan Management

Corp., 1986).

6. Even in litigation, however, treating the interpreter as an extension of the client could hold costs down in that the client's own attorney (if certified in the language) could act as the interpreter. According to the New Jersey (proposed) legislation attached hereto as Appendix III, it would be improper for counsel to function as an interpreter; and, indeed, as a logical matter, it is, if we grant the assumption that the interpreter is to be a neutral and detached officer of the court. But is the premise supportable? It is difficult to see why attorneys should be permitted to function as the client's "mouthpiece" only so long as they speak in English. Besides, letting attorneys be their own interpreters might encourage more language study among prelaw and law students. And would that be all bad?

7. A related problem, well beyond the scope of this paper, but one interesting to contemplate is whether potential jurors should be subject to disqualification if they speak a language that will be interpreted in court. Judge Ernest Borunda of the South Bay Municipal Court in San Diego County, a judicial district with a largely Hispanic population contiguous to the United States-Mexico border, typically instructs jurors in such cases to base their decisions on the interpretation given in court, not on their own understanding of the language. One suspects that this is probably about as effective as most limiting instructions.

But, if linguistic understanding were to be grounds to challenge a prospective juror, what should be the level of competence necessary to warrant dismissal from the jury panel? Fluency? Conversancy? "I took Spanish 1 five years ago"? Is this a case where a little knowledge is a dangerous thing? Or is it a situation in which, as in others, the more you know the less likely you are to be acceptable for jury service?

8. A copy of the APLIT-NJ Code is attached as Appendix II to this paper.

9. New Jersey Assembly Bill No. 1911; a copy is attached as Appendix III to this paper.

10. Another possible outcome could be that larger law firms or those with specialized clienteles might begin to hire their own full-time translators/interpreters--or they might begin to consider language proficiency as a criterion in deciding whom to hire as new Associates; see footnote 6 _supra_.

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COMMERCIAL FRENCH TO ENGLISH TRANSLATION: A HOLISTIC APPROACH

by

William J. Carney, M.A.
Gannon University

William J. Carney, M.A.
Gannon University

Commercial French to English Translation: A Holistic Approach

In a paper which I presented at the Fourth Annual Eastern Michigan University Conference on Languages for Business and the Professions in May, 1985, I defended the inclusion of an upper-level commercial French course in the foreign language curriculum by showing that the traditional skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) can be successfully adapted to the teaching of business French. This paper will focus on what might be called the "fifth skill," that of French to English translation, and offer a rationale for considering it as the basis for another type of upper-level commercial offering. Discussion will then focus on the need for what I call a "translation universe" and cover techniques which teachers can use to create that universe in their classroom. Finally, it will be important to identify specific types of French-language commercial documents which should be targeted for translation and to suggest sources of authentic materials for classroom use.

It is tempting to justify a course in commercial French to English translation on a totally pragmatic basis. Persons possessing such a skill will enhance their job prospects because many American firms do business with the French and with Francophone countries. While the realities of the job market may draw students to commercial translation, they will do very little to make them competent translators in the short or the long run. A more cogent reason for studying commercial French to English translation springs from the very diversity and complexity of topics in the commercial realm. As I demonstrated in the paper mentioned above, topics like commercial correspondence, advertising, buying, selling and customer-oriented banking and postal operations can be successfully taught using the traditional skills. But the traditional approach engenders its own limitations. Once students have become acquainted with, say, banking operations, they must go on to another topic and yet another, if the traditionally-oriented commercial French course is to be a true survey of the business horizon in France. How then will students develop the depth required in specific areas of concern? How will they come to see the applications (and implications) of what they have learned as they are revealed in specialized French newspaper articles, business reports, technical correspondence and legal contracts which often deal with more profound aspects of the topics covered in the commercial survey course? My answer is that translation activity must be brought to the fore as an effective means of enhancing student expertise and range of understanding in the commercial domain, and I am proposing that, for advanced students who want to plumb the depths of commercial French, the French to English translation offering is an appropriate complement to the traditionally-oriented business French survey course. Indeed, translation activity has many valuable qualities. It lends itself to variety because a large number of passages can be considered during a given semester; it is integrative because translators must relate passage content to what they have learned about culture and commerce both in France and in the United States; it is flexible because students can work at their own pace and may choose to sequence passages according to their interests; finally, it is rewarding because students increase their understanding of commercial life in France and they do it through their own efforts.

Teaching commercial translation is not without its difficulties, however. I have taught a general-subject translation course on the intermediate level for many years and have found that humanities and social science topics have a certain immediacy because students can relate them by analogy to their own experience and education. This is not to say that all my intermediate students become talented translators, but their ability to identify with the subject matter puts the wind at their back in their efforts to arrive at coherency. Commercial French to English translation, on the other hand, requires students to pass through a sort of "translation middle ground." One could describe this "translation middle ground" as a state of ambiguity caused by a preliminary English translation that lacks cohesion and immediacy. Student translators may encounter this "translation middle ground" for several reasons:

1. Key vocabulary within a given French sentence or phrase may be devoid of meaning (may have no affective value) for

students even in English because the English equivalents they find are idiosyncratic or technical.

2. In an analogous vein, conceptual difficulties may be generated by a series of sentences within a given passage or even by the entire passage. Students must understand the concept involved before they can put the English equivalents they have found into a proper context. The concept in question may be commercial-technical or commercial-cultural, and its multi-faceted nature makes the search for context all the more difficult.

Difficulties encountered within a given sentence are illustrated by the following statement, in which translation accuracy depends on the precise meaning of a single expression: "La grève du zèle organisée par les douaniers a sérieusement affecté nos livraisons." The term une grève du zèle is found in the dictionary, where it is translated as a 'work-to-rule strike.'[1] The students' satisfaction at having found the correct meaning will be short-lived when they realize that the English translation is ambiguous. A prior awareness of the types of strikes normally called by workers is needed in order to bring the term "work-to-rule" into focus. The slowdown strike, in which customs officers reduce their efficiency by enforcing regulations too scrupulously, (that is, "going by the book") is the type of strike which best corresponds to the meaning given by the dictionary. Translation clarity is thus achieved by reference to a pre-existing inventory of vocabulary in English.[2]

Imprecise translation also results when students cannot focus on the interior unity of a passage due to their lack of familiarity with its subject matter. In the following letter, translation clarity demands prior knowledge of a technical process:

> Nous faisons suite à votre demande de documentation sur le Pli enveloppant "Pli-Post" et la machine "Folist."
> Nous vous prions de bien vouloir trouver ci-joint un dossier complet sur ce matériel, ainsi que des spécimens de pli enveloppant avant passage sur imprimante, après ruptage et après façonnage sur la machine Folist.
> Ce système permet de traiter les documents sur tous types d'imprimantes et plus particulièrement, sur imprimante au laser, du fait que la colle est déposée au moment du façonnage des documents.[3]

Unless students are aware of how pre-printed order envelopes are prepared, the English equivalent of such key terms as pli enveloppant (foldable reply envelope), matériel (equipment), ruptage (cutting), façonnage (shaping) and imprimante (printer), while in the dictionary, will be like jewels without a setting, pleasing to the eye but lacking in impact because they have no predefined relationship to each other.

It is well to note at this point that, while a thorough knowledge of French grammar and structure is essential to translation activity at any level and of any type, it is less a guarantee of success with commercial topics than with others because the vocabulary "guess factor" is often severely diminished or non-existent. My experience with the French to English commercial translation course suggests that even students with a strong background in French grammar and structure fall far short of accuracy when they cannot find their way through the "translation middle ground" which occurs in the ways I have just described. Moreover, in commercial translation as in other types, student have a tendency to proceed inductively (by amassing English equivalents of French vocabulary without regard to their interrelationships) rather than deductively (by fitting the English equivalents into a total picture). Teachers must counter this tendency as part of their effort to guide students to translation clarity.

The problems associated with commercial French to English translation are thus very real and they must be resolved before students can be expected to translate accurately. In my opinion, the purpose of the commercial translation course should be to help students create what I call a "translation universe," that is, a well-defined set of parameters for the passage they are about to render into English. Students must be led to see each French text as a large but potentially coherent jigsaw puzzle which they are to recreate (in English) through the proper placement of what at first seem to be amorphous parts. Only when students try to visualize the whole at the outset will the pieces lose their fluidity and find their proper spot in the total picture.

There are a number of ways to create a commercial translation universe, but any method selected must have two important characteristics:

1. The universe must be constructed primarily in the student's native language, not in French.
2. Prior student acquaintance with business terminology and business procedures (in French and in English) must be taken into account.

The requirement that the translation universe for each topic under consideration be constructed in English rather than in French may at first seem surprising and somewhat illogical, because translators must obviously begin their work with a French-language text. We must keep in mind, however, that translation from a foreign language, the "fifth language skill," has a very different orientation than the other four. Listening, speaking, reading and writing activities are exercised in an environment which aims at building mastery in the foreign language by systematically distancing students from the influence of their mother tongue. French to English translation, on the other hand, attempts to achieve accuracy and coherency in the mother tongue itself, and classroom techniques for building foreign language mastery are relatively useless and time consuming when brought to the service of French to English translation. Thus for example, students trying to speak and write in French have a real need for pertinent vocabulary because they will to some degree be creating their own context for its use. On the other hand, lists of French vocabulary concerning mortgage credit will not make a translation activity much easier, because context is created by the French passage itself, not by a separate vocabulary list per se, nor by those doing the translating.

Methods of creating a translation universe for a particular topic should also be keyed to the students' prior exposure to commerce. Those who have already taken an economics course will not have extraordinary difficulty conceptualizing the world of supply and demand, and anyone who has studied the French postal banking system will not be completely at sea when translating an article on the role of banking in the economy.

I propose four techniques for creating a translation universe in the classroom. Instructors will want to choose from among them those which best suit their students' background in commerce. As a first technique, the instructor gives a brief English synopsis of the passage. He or she might say, for example, that the passage concerns mortgage credit as it relates to the business sector rather than to the private sector. Students well-acquainted with this general topic will then be cued to review what they have learned in other courses and use it as a guide while translating the passage.

The second technique is a variation of the first. The instructor may ask each student to read the passage at home and to write a brief English summary of its content before beginning systematic translation of the text. The instructor may wish to evaluate these synopses for accuracy privately or to use them as part of a class discussion in which students themselves arrive at a mutually acceptable résumé. This summary then serves as a deductive guide because it gives the grandes lignes of the passage. Students tackle the complete translation individually on their own time and are forced to reject renderings which are clearly at odds with the summary statement they have agreed upon.

Very sophisticated passages call for a third technique. Students with some commercial background could engage in a sort of reverse explication de texte according to which they identify key French expressions and then try to put their English equivalents into authentic English-language contexts. Thus, the opposition global / sectoriel, which students might hurriedly translate as 'global' and 'sectorial,' are important economic terms designating phenomena which touch all parts of the economy (global) or which affect only certain parts of a total economic system (sectoriel). Depending on context, then, global can mean 'universal,' 'industry-wide,' 'worldwide,' or 'total.' Sectoriel may be translated as 'partial,' 'linked to one industry,' or 'affecting one type of economic activity.' Armed with an understanding of the concepts which key words or phrases suggest, students will then translate the assigned passage on their own time.

Instructor efforts to create a translation universe must be most aggressive when students bring a somewhat limited commercial background to the translation of difficult or arcane commercial texts. This might be true, for example, of articles on the spot oil market, venture capital, the gross national product and stock trading, among others. The need for context here is so complete that preparation for passage translation requires a fourth technique, namely the discussion of assigned English-language readings on these subjects prior to translation activity. This procedure has several specific advantages:

1. Difficult or specialized English vocabulary can be identified and explained in reference to its context.
2. English-language phraseology indigenous to the topic in question can be highlighted and compared, as necessary, to more standard turns of phrases in English so that student comprehension is assured.
3. Attention can be called to pertinent high frequency English-language commercial expressions which are likely to be signaled by the French text.
4. The overall structure of related English texts can be analyzed with a view to identifying parameters or topic limitations of the subject area under scrutiny.

The following excerpt from a French newspaper article entitled "Lancement d'un emprunt d'Etat de douze milliards de francs" presents problems which are most readily solved by using this fourth technique of prior exposure to background materials in English:

> L'Etat a lancé, mardi 26 juin, un emprunt de 12 milliards de francs dans le cadre de ses émissions classiques destinées à financer par de l'épargne une partie de son déficit budgétaire.
>
> Cet emprunt comprend deux tranches:
>
> La première est de 4 milliards de francs, à taux fixe et avec faculté de prorogation. La durée de départ est de huit ans. A la fin de la huitième année et de la douzième année, cette faculté permettra d'obtenir une prorogation de deux fois quatre ans. Les titres sont d'un million de francs, et le prix d'émission au pair. Le taux pour les huit premières années est de 12,80%, et, à chaque période de renouvellement, le taux sera celui des emprunts d'Etat à plus de sept ans.[4]

The word emprunt is a source of immediate ambiguity for student translators who are unfamiliar with the topic of government bonds. The dictionary defines emprunt as both a 'borrowing' and a 'loan,' and emprunt d'Etat means 'government loan.'[5] Is the French government borrowing or lending money here? Under what precise conditions is it acting? To whom is it lending or from whom is it borrowing money? Without a guiding concept, students will invariably mishandle other key words in the article. Cadre, lancer, émission classique, tranche, faculté, prorogation, durée de départ, and taux are all in the dictionary, but there is a high probability that students will choose an inappropriate meaning for each if the context remains illusive. Indeed, the language used to describe government bond issues in English is specialized and must be known beforehand by the translator. According to this language, lancer un emprunt means 'to float a loan,' dans le cadre de ses émissions classiques indicates that the French government will use its normal issuing procedures, tranche refers to a 'block' of bonds, faculté de prorogation says that the bonds are renewable (that bond life can be extended), la durée de départ is the 'bond life' (period required for the bond to mature). Student translators, drawing on their prior knowledge of the topic in question, will see the French article as a series of precise codes to be identified rather than as a litany of unrelated words to be translated.

Finally, it should be noted that techniques three and four are intended for use with a series of French passages or articles on the same topic. Only in that way can the instructor determine whether students are assimilating key concepts and whether translation proficiency within a given domain is increasing.

English-language materials are of course essential to the construction of a translation universe and instructors will find that such resources are readily available on their college campus. Periodic scrutiny of the Wall Street Journal and Business Week, for example, will permit them to build up a file of English-language articles to complement the French texts they like to assign. In addition, business school colleagues may be willing to serve as guest lecturers in the translation course and they may even be willing to make audio or video tapes of lectures on concepts which then could be discussed in class before translation activity begins.

Efforts to create a translation universe, however skillful, will not be effective unless they are matched with the proper types of foreign language materials. As a general guideline, instructors should choose those which do not lend themselves readily to analysis in the active-skills commercial classroom, that is, to analysis in the target language. A second criterion for selecting foreign language materials is authenticity. Generally speaking, texts chosen for translation should have been written by the French for the French. Only in this way can advanced students really feel that their translation skills will be most fully exercised. Edited passages and those for which a gloss has been provided do not challenge students sufficiently and may give them a false measure of their translation ability.

I have found that the best materials fall into two main categories. The first includes fixed-form documents such as mandats, bordereaux and other formulaires which would require extensive explanation (probably in English) before students could profit from them in the traditionally-oriented commercial classroom. These documents contain built-in parameters and students can verify translation accuracy together in class by discussing what information must be supplied in the spaces provided. The information sought is often highly specific (names, addresses, amounts, dates) and does not lend itself to extensive use of the target language. The second category includes passages of a highly specialized or stylized nature. Articles from the business sections of French magazines and newspapers often assume prior acquaintance with the topic under consideration and must be related to a larger picture to be properly understood. Legal texts, such as import-export contracts, shipping instructions, deeds, public laws and articles on the legal aspects of commerce require familiarity with specific vocabularies in English before they can be translated accurately.

As was mentioned above with regard to materials in English, the search for authentic French-language commercial texts should begin in the campus library, and it will be limited only by the extent of the library's holdings and by the instructors' imagination and creativity. There are, however, other valuable resources which complement library holdings and which can be obtained free or at a reasonable cost.

Authentic formulaires are an immediate challenge because they are very difficult to obtain in the United States. Nicole Meunier and Gérard Coadou have edited an excellent work entitled Travaux professionnels sur documents commerciaux, which contains facsimiles of various fixed-form documents, including those used in banking, shipping, sales and payment of accounts.[6] The "fine print" which often appears on the reverse side of these forms is frequently included as well. French banks and post offices are a goldmine for formulaires and informative leaflets which are available at no charge in the customer service area of these establishments. If a trip to France isn't feasible, a colleague, a student or a family member who is traveling there might be willing to gather these materials during a visit to the bank and the post office. No systematic attempt should be made to evaluate such documents while they are being gathered; it is better to judge their usefulness when they can be examined at leisure and related to course requirements and student needs.

Local industries with commercial interests in France and in Francophone countries can be another important source of specialized texts and correspondence suitable for translation. Instructors should call or visit their international department to make requests. Smaller local firms may occasionally need translation services and may allow translators to keep copies of non-sensitive documents they've been sent. Contact with a range of local firms will guarantee familiarity with various specialized vocabularies and permit the development of a resource pool for class use.

Larger-scale efforts to generate a variety of translation materials will obviously involve contacting American firms with subsidiaries and affiliates in France as well as French firms doing business on American soil. The French Industrial Development Agency (FIDA), known in France as la Délégation à l'Aménagement du Territoire (DATAR) can identify the former through its offices in New York, Chicago or Los Angeles, and the French Embassy, through the services of its Commercial Counselor, can provide information on the latter.[7] The World Trade Academy Press publishes two separate series of lists entitled Foreign Firms in the United States, and American Firms in Foreign Countries. Both works, updated yearly, are moderately priced and extremely comprehensive.[8]

A final word on source materials should include a reminder to be patient. It takes time to build up a backlog of resources; the passages and articles which prove most challenging and useful in the classroom will eventually form the core of course assignments. Once established through repeated use, this repertoire can be modified according to student needs and instructor preferences. Teachers will eventually become quite adept at selecting from a large body of printed material those passages which can be approached using the techniques described in this paper.

The purpose of this article has been to demonstrate that the commercial French to English translation offering is a proper sequel to the upper-level French business course taught in the framework of the traditional skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing in the target language. The translation course described in this paper exposes students to a depth and variety which will greatly enhance their understanding of the nuances of French commerce by building on the foundation laid down in the more traditional business French course. Successful instruction in the "fifth skill" must include a concomitant development of the students' translation universe in their mother tongue so that they have a prior acquaintance with the concepts and English phraseology signalled by the French text. The French passage under consideration will then be seen as a series of interrelated symbols rather than as a collage of esoteric or ambiguous vocabulary words. Moreover, the holistic approach I am proposing offers the potential for a high degree of student and teacher satisfaction because attention is focused on specific topic areas until students achieve translation mastery. Student translators proceed at their own pace and their progress is measurable in qualitative terms within given subject areas. Finally, this approach is a realistic response to the variety and sophistication of translation activity done in the field of international business.

NOTES

[1] Harrap's French and English Dictionary, eds. Françoise Larendeau, et al. (Harrap Limited, 1981), p. 84 (French-English section).

[2] Harrap's French and English Dictionary translates une grève perlée as a "go-slow" strike (84), but this obviously refers to a situation in which workers take longer than necessary to complete a manufacturing process by moving very slowly rather than by over-applying rules and regulations.

[3] This letter, which bears no copyright, was included in materials given to participants in Le Stage pédagogique du Français des Affaires sponsored by the Paris Chamber of Commerce and Industry and held in Paris July 2-13, 1984. The following is my translation of the text of the letter:

> We are responding to your request for information on the foldable reply envelope "Pli-Post" and the "Folist" machine.
>
> Please find enclosed a complete set of information on this equipment, as well as samples of the foldable reply envelope before printing [and] after cutting and shaping on the "Folist" machine.
>
> This system permits processing of documents on all types of printers, and most especially on laser printers, because the glue is applied when the documents are shaped.

[4] "Lancement d'un emprunt d'Etat de douze milliards de francs," Le Monde, 27 juin, 1984, 35. The following is my translation of the portion of the article quoted in my paper:

> On Tuesday, June 26, the [French] government floated a loan for 12 billion francs according to its normal issuing procedures. This bond issue is aimed at financing a part of its budget deficit by encouraging savings.
>
> This government loan (= government bond issue) includes two blocks: The first is for 4 billion francs, at a fixed rate and with a renewal option. The bond life is eight years. At the end of the eighth year and of the twelfth year, this option will allow [investors] to obtain an extension of four years each time. The certificates are for a million francs, and the issuing price is at par. The rate for the first eight years is 12.80% and, at each renewal period, the rate will be that of government bonds [with a bond life] of more than seven years.

[5] Harrap's French and English Business Dictionary, p. 61 (French-English section).

[6] Nicole Meunier and Gérard Coadou, Travaux professionnels sur documents commerciaux (Paris: Les Editions Foucher, 1978).

[7] The French Industrial Development Agency can be reached at the following addresses in the United States: 610 Fifth Avenue, Suite 610, New York, NY 10020, (212) 757-9340; 401 North Michigan Avenue,

Suite 4035, Chicago, IL 60611, (312) 661-1640; 1801 Avenue of the Stars, Suite 410, Los Angeles, CA 90067, (213) 879-0352. The Commercial Counselor can be reached by contacting the French Embassy in New York at the address listed above.

[8] The World Trade Academy Press is located at the following address: Suite 509, 50 East 42nd Street, New York, NY 10017, (212) 697-4999. Instructors should ask for the list concerning France in each series.

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE SIXTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE
ON
LANGUAGES AND COMMUNICATION FOR WORLD BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS

PART XI.

KEYNOTE AND MISCELLANEOUS

INTERNATIONALIZATION OF MANAGEMENT EDUCATION

A Status Report on Trends, Strategies and the Extent of Internationalization in Business Schools, with Special Emphasis on the Role and Programs of the Academy of International Business

by

DUANE KUJAWA

Immediate Past President, Academy of International Business
and
Professor of International Business
Director, International Business & Banking Institute
School of Business Administration
University of Miami
Coral Gables, Florida 33124 U.S.A.

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The Academy of International Business conducted it 26th annual meeting in New York in October 1985. The meeting, which was attended by over 400 educators and scholars concerned with the multi-faceted dimensions of international business, marked the beginning of the Academy's second quarter-century of professional service.[1] In the first 25 years, both the Academy and the "field" of international business grew and developed significantly. As expected, the Academy and the field are considerably inter-related. Indeed, the scholarly definition of the field and the promotion of international business, both institutionally among business schools and conceptually as an integrative discipline, have constituted the prime mission of the Academy since its inception in 1960.

Various products and programs have been put in place by the Academy in support of this mission. The most recent of these -- the 1986 survey of international business curricula and programs at business schools worldwide -- provides information of special relevance to attendees at a conference such as this. The results of the 1986 survey will be covered in considerable detail in this paper. As a preface to this, however, let me first introduce the Academy to you in a more specific way.

The Academy of International Business

The Academy of International Business is a world-wide organization with more than 1,700 members in more than 50 countries. The vast majority of the membership is from academe, but there is some representation from business, government and international organizations. About 80 percent of the members reside in the United States, 5 percent in Canada and 15 percent elsewhere. Reflecting the growth of the field of international business, membership in the Academy has more than doubled during just the last eight years. It is up by a factor of six since 1970!

The definition of any field, of course, finds its genesis in scholarly research -- and many of the Academy's programs support the development and dissemination of scholarly research. The _Journal of International Business Studies_, published jointly by the Academy and the University of South Carolina, is one of the Academy's major research-support instruments. It is also clearly the premier academic journal in the field. Over 160 papers were presented by Academy members at the 1986 annual meeting in London. Most of these reported on scholarly research. A similar situation was evidenced at the last international meeting (Singapore, 1984) where 125 papers were presented. In addition, regional meetings are routinely held in areas ranging from the U.S. Northeast, to Hong Kong and the United Kingdom. These provide additional outlets for scholarly research. The Academy also conducts an annual dissertation competition which results in the recognition of the "dissertation of the year" and the inclusion of papers by the four finalists on the annual meeting program.

From an institutional perspective, the Academy has supported the development of international business education in several ways. To illustrate, the President of the Academy is an _ex officio_ member of the International Affairs Committee (IAC) of the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB).

This provides for clear communications channels between business-school deans and business-school faculty on topics and issues related to internationalization. It also facilitates the establishment of mutually beneficial support mechanisms. For example, the IAC has sponsored several workshops over the past few years to develop faculty expertise in the teaching of international business-type courses. Workshop participants have been faculty members concerned with the need to develop teaching expertise in the international area. The Academy has provided for the on-going management and faculty staffing for these programs. Similarly, the AACSB-sponsored programs on "internationalization strategies" for business school deans have benefitted from substantial inputs, during both the planning and implementation phases, from the Academy and its members.

There is no doubt the "worldwide dimensions of business" guideline imposed by the AACSB in its accreditation standards has done much to expand university-level education in international business. Over the years, the Academy, via IAC participation and in numerous other ways (including the encouragement and presentation of scholarly research), has been closely related to the development, acceptance and articulation of this standard.

In support of its institutional development mission objective, the Academy periodically surveys business schools on the status of their international business courses and program developments. The first of these surveys was conducted by Vern Terpstra in 1969, the second by John Daniels and Lee Radebaugh in

1974, the third by Robert Grosse and Gerald Perritt in 1980 and, the fourth and latest, by John Thanopoulos and Joseph Leonard in 1986.

As might be expected, the content of these surveys has evolved as the field itself has developed. Terpstra's 1969 survey, "University Education for International Business," for example, presented the catalogue descriptions of international-type courses offered at the 95 U.S.-based business schools that responded. It also included two matrices: one showing the levels at which the respondents offered courses in international business; the other cross-referencing those courses by subject matter and by school. This 1969 study responded to the Academy's interest in developing information on the nature and type of international business courses being offered.

The 1974 Daniels and Radebaugh "International Business Curriculum Survey" focussed more on the placement of international business within degree programs, the placement of international business faculty within business school organization structures, whether or not international business could be taken as a separate major or minor and which, if any, international-type courses were required of students. Programs at the 261 schools that participated in this survey were discussed and compared -- including 58 from schools in 14 countries outside the United States.

Grosse and Perritt's 1980 "International Business Curricula: A Global Survey" followed, by six years, the AACSB's new "worldwide dimensions" accreditation standards and sought to document the substantial increase in international business course offerings at U.S. schools, as well as what many thought was a substantial incidence of international business course offerings at non-U.S. schools. One intent here was to demonstrate how international business had succeeded as a "new product" of the earlier two decades; another was to profile the configuration international business was taking on as it was maturing academically and organizationally at the onset of the 1980s. A total of 380 schools with international business courses participated in the survey. Of these, 108 were located outside the United States.

The 1986 survey conducted by Thanopoulos and Leonard, also titled "International Business Curricula: A Global Survey," had to accommodate the considerable growth that had taken place in international business education during the first half of the 1980s. Much of this growth had taken place outside the United States. Some of it had been manifested in developments such as the establishment of international business institutes and centers and the development of faculty and student exchange programs among schools in different countries. The 1986 survey reported on these items, and others, in considerable detail. It presents findings covering 384 U.S.-based business schools and 294 institutions concerned with business education in 51 other countries. Our discussion now turns to the results of this survey.

Results_of_the_1986 "International_Business_Curricula:__A_Global_Survey"

The results of the 1986 survey are presented in two major parts; one dealing with AACSB-member schools (mostly U.S., with some Canadian and but a few others); the other with non-AASCSB schools (essentially non-U.S.).

For the AACSB-member schools, topics on which responses were solicited included the institutional handling of international business programs; major, minor and course offerings in international business; the establishment of international business centers or institutes; formal agreements with foreign schools and "international options." In addition, detailed listings, including the names of contact persons, are presented for institutes and centers of international business education and for the AACSB-member schools participating in the study. Listings of faculty by major subject area are also presented, as are detailed matrices showing international business course offerings and other information school by school.

For the non-AACSB schools (referred to hereafter as foreign schools), responses were collected on the content of undergraduate and graduate programs, as well as language of instruction, the number of full-time and part-time faculty and of students and whether or not there are faculty and student exchange programs. All these data are displayed, school by school, in a summary matrix. There are also special sections on exchange programs listing aims and contact persons and on the name and addresses of those participating in the survey.

The AACSB-Member Schools

International_Business_Programs

Data on the handling of international business programs as evidenced in both the 1980 and 1986 surveys are presented in Table 1. The data from the two surveys are not quite comparable, however, since the 1980 survey allowed but a single response

Table 1

HANDLING OF INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS PROGRAMS
AACSB-Member Schools
(Percentage of Respondents)

	1980 Survey	1986 Survey
In an International Business Department	9%	5%
In another Department	19	25
International Business Material Incorporated into Functional Courses	29	67
Functional Faculty Teach Specific International Business Courses	40	64

Note: The 1986 survey allowed multiple responses.

Source: 1986 Survey, p. 17.

whereas the later one allowed multiple responses. Nonetheless, the data do show a decline in the incidence of international business departments responsible for international business programs and an increase in the number of international business programs being administered out of "other" departments. (Note the two categories of international business department and another department are mutually exclusive categories in both surveys.) One interpretation here might involve the nature of the promotion and tenure decision-making process and its typical functional stratification. Traditional departmental structures, with their scholarly legitimacy well established and their concerns over budgets and "turf" well defined, have been found, in some cases, to be relatively intolerant regarding the emergence of international business as an academic entity. The 1986 survey found high levels of international business material being covered in functional courses and of functional faculty teaching international business. Neither finding is unexpected given the nature of the subject matter pertinent to the functional areas and the existence of faculty expertise pertinent to international business in the functional areas.

Majors, Minors and Course Offerings

Table 2 displays the data pertaining to majors, minors and international business course offerings at the respondent schools. International business can be taken as a major at a reasonably large percentage of the schools. The incidence of the offering of such a major was more evident at the graduate level. One rationale for this is that the MBA degree itself is typically seen as a general management degree and, within this context, the cross-functional, integrative nature of international business may be judged as beneficial. Also, at the undergraduate level, there may be some resistence to having international business majors since many firms do not recruit international business graduates. They recruit in the traditional functional areas and schools are concerned that their majors have skills that are salable in the job market.

When comparing the 1980 and 1986 surveys on these topics, it

Table 2

CURRICULUM CONTENT RELATED TO INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS
AACSB-Member Schools
(Percentage of Total Respondents in Each Category)

	Undergraduate Program	Graduate Program
International Business Major	22%	31%
International Business Minor	17	15
International Major in Conjunction with a Functional Area	9	8
International Minor in Conjunction with a Functional Area	9	8
Foreign Language Required for International Business Studies	22	11
Foreign Language Recommended International Business Studies	22	14
International Accounting Course	20	24
International Business Course	54	50
International Economics Course	61	46
International Finance Course (macro)	40	45
International Financial Management Course	31	40
International Business Law Course	11	18
International Management Course	33	43
International Marketing Course	68	61
Course on Multinational Corporations	14	22

Note: Course listing is of courses offered.

Source: 1986 Survey, pp. 12 - 13.

is clearly evident there has been considerable growth in the incidence of respondents offering international business majors at the graduate level, as well as international business minors at both levels. In fact, the 1986 results indicate an incidence fully double that reported earlier for each of these three categories. Interestingly, at the undergraduate level, the incidence of international business as a major was essentially identical in both surveys. There has been no growth these past six years regarding the (net) number of respondents offering undergraduate international business majors.

A foreign language was either required or recommended at 44 percent of the undergraduate respondents. This may seem like a high percentage, but in some ways it is not. Consider, for example, that most undergraduate programs require a two-year liberal arts preparation for upper-division business courses. This liberal arts experience could easily include a foreign language component. Indeed, liberal arts faculty often lobby for such. Also, research on business preferences invariably notes the advantages of language and cultural studies as important components in preparation for international business.[2]

International-type courses offered at half or more of the respondents included international business, international economics, and international marketing at the undergraduate level. Two of these -- international business and international marketing -- were offered at the graduate level at half or more of the respondents. The relative "popularity" of international business and international marketing appears quite reasonable. Many schools appear to have included an international business course in their core requirements to assure compliance with the AACSB accrediation standard. Also, the course is traditionally seen as a popular elective. International marketing courses are also seen as traditionally popular -- especially from an export marketing perspective and the fact that many of today's international marketing courses have long been offered, in many cases originally as international trade or exporting courses. In all, six different international-type courses were identified at both levels as being offered at over 30 percent of the respondents. This indicates a fairly decent breadth of offerings -- but with considerable room to grow. Interestingly, the 1986 study also reported a large number of international-type courses (at 20 percent of the undergraduate and 24 percent of the graduate respondents) that fell below the 10 percent cutoff rule used by Thanopoulos and Leonard for inclusion in the tabular results (as shown in Table 2 above).

International Business Institutes or Centers

Sixty of the responding institutions, nearly 16 percent of the total, reported the existence of specialized international business institutes or centers. Nine respondents reported two or more such institutes. The 1986 survey listed each institute and its director and coded each institute according to university affiliation. Seventeen of these institutes were identified as international studies centers; ten as area studies centers. This leaves 43 institutes that were identified in some way as related to international business research and/or education. No comparable statistics have been developed for prior years or via other surveys. The total, however, appears impressive!

Judging from my own personal experience at three universities with international business institutes, the role and function of an institute can vary considerably. The institute can be a quasi-department with control over course offerings, faculty recruiting, student enrollments, etc. It can be purely an executive development vehicle. It can be a research institute concerned with research funding, project management and publications. Surely there are even other models.

Formal_Agreements_with_Foreign_Schools

A total of 129 AACSB-member schools reported formal agreements with schools outside of their home country. These included a total of 123 agreements with schools in countries located within the European Economic Community, 74 in Far East countries, 10 in countries in South America and the Caribbean, nine in Eastern Bloc countries and one in an African country. (Note that respondent schools can report more than one agreement.)

Table 3 displays the survey results on this topic for the top 15 countries. Note should be made of the high position of the People's Republic of China (31 agreements) -- a perhaps unexpected development in light of the recentness of the China-U.S. reproachement permitting such agreements. Most of the larger, market-based countries of the West are included in the top 15. Certainly establishing business school linkages between schools in countries with similar market characteristics and development levels makes sense. There are obviously other

Table 3

AGREEMENTS WITH FOREIGN SCHOOLS
AACSB-Member Schools

Country Location of Foreign School	Number of Agreements
France	40
England	34
People's Republic of China	31
Japan	28
West Germany	15
Mexico	12
Spain	9
The Netherlands	8
Switzerland	7
Belgium	7
Italy	7
Canada	6
Australia	5
Sweden	5
Greece	5

Source: 1986 Survey, P. 103.

reasons too, such as geographical proximity (e.g., Mexico) and cultural affinity (e.g., Greece and Sweden, perhaps).

Unfortunately, only sparse data were collected in the 1986 survey which presented details regarding the nature of these formal agreements. The reasonable expectation, however, is that these agreements would usually cover student and faculty exchanges. The precise nature of such exchanges regarding tuition payments, credits granted and faculty salaries remains unknown, however.

This section presents formal agreements with foreign schools as reported by AACSB schools. Note should also be taken that these agreements were also made by the foreign schools. Viewed in this perspective, one could observe that non-AACSB schools made formal agreements with 129 AACSB schools, and that the foreign schools represented institutions in 44 different countries outside the United States. What is not reported in these data is the number of agreements by foreign schools with other non-U.S. schools.

International Options

About 40 percent of the respondents reported they occasionally offered short courses or roundtables on international business topics. Only 10 percent reported offering these on a regular basis.

Over a third of the respondents reported they tried to get grant support for their international business programs during the past three years. Only about one in ten were successful, however. This is about consistent with the experiences of the

U.S. Department of Education with its "Business and International Education" grant program. Typically 10 to 15 percent of those who prepare and submit proposals are successful.

One-fifth of the respondents noted they have international business internship programs. The nature of these programs was not explored, however. They could range from a full six-month overseas employment experience, such as required in the University of South Carolina's Master of International Business Studies (MIBS) program, to a three-credit, directed studies experience involving a business firm.

At 8 percent of the respondents, committees composed of business community representatives advise the schools on their international business programs. This is a disturbingly low statistic for an important and growing program like international business. It is also a disturbing statistic for a professional school to have to live with.

Directory-type Information

In addition to what has already been discussed, the 1986 survey also presented considerable information of a "directory" nature. This included matrices on general information, the undergraduate programs and the graduate programs. Appendix A displays samples of this information.

The Foreign Schools

Undergraduate Programs

Table 4 presents data collected on the undergraduate business specialization areas at the foreign schools

Table 4

UNDERGRADUATE SPECIALIZATION AREAS
Non-AACSB Schools

Specialization Areas	Percent of Respondents
Accounting	86%
General Business Administration	82
Economics	71
Finance	68
Marketing	62
Statistics	60
Management Information Systems	45
Behavioral Studies (or Personnel)	44
Production	36
International Business	31
Public Enterprise	26
Entrepreneurship	20
Transportation	14
Real Estate	5

Source: 1986 Survey, p. 137.

participating in the 1986 survey. These areas included what are typically considered to be within the domain of business schools.

The data in Table 4 are based on information received from 227 respondents. They show "specialization" areas which appear to be the logical equivalent of majors in the AACSB-member schools. That being the case, international business appears more evident at the foreign schools than at the U.S. schools at the undergraduate level. Indeed, the difference is of a magnitude of nearly 50 percent. This appears reasonable in light of the differences between the U.S. and non-U.S. economies regarding the incidence of international trade and business compared to the economy as a whole.

It is likely international business has grown recently as a major field. A 1978 survey by Altman, Kujawa and Sutija of deans that are member schools in CLADEA and EFMD (respectively, Latin American and European business school organizations concerned with business education) reported 88 percent of the respondents felt international business would be receiving increased emphasis over the next decade (i.e., during 1978-1988).[3] The present findings suggest that has been the case. As with the U.S. schools, though, it appears international business, as a major area of study at non-U.S. schools, certainly has room to grow.

Graduate_Programs

Table 5 presents data that were collected from the non-U.S. schools regarding their graduate-level programs. The data, which are based on a total of 294 responses, show international business to be available as a specialization area at 30 percent of the

Table 5

GRADUATE SPECIALIZATION AREAS
Non-AACSB Schools

Specialization Area	Percent of Respondents
General Business Administration	65%
Finance	52
Accounting	51
Economics	51
Marketing	49
Statistics	44
Behavioral Studies (or Personnel)	40
Management Information Systems	36
International Business	30
Production	30
Public Enterprise	25
Entrepreneurship	20
Transportation	10
Real Estate	4

Source: 1986 Survey, p. 138.

schools. This is essentially the same as found at the U.S. schools. As discussed above regarding the undergraduate programs, it appears reasonable that there has been recent growth in international business as a major field during the past few years.

Language of Instruction

English was the language of instruction at over half the the responding schools. French and Spanish were the next most popular. The data on language of instruction are presented in Table 6.

Table 6

LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION
Non-AACSB Schools

Language	Percent of Respondents
English	46%
French	9
Spanish	9
German	6
English & Another Language	5
Japanese	3
Portugese	2

Source: 1986 Survey, p. 136.

The popularity of English reflects several factors. Many of the respondent schools were in English-speaking countries, for instance. Also, English is generally regarded as the language of business. More teaching materials are available in English than in any other language.

Directory-Type Information

As with the U.S. schools, the 1986 survey presented a considerable amount of directory-type information. This includes information, presented in matrix form, on each school's programs, numbers of students and faculty, etc. The format is identical to that presented for a sample of the U.S. schools in Appendix A.

The survey of foreign schools also included a special section on the aims of foreign schools seeking exchange programs and the names and address of the appropriate contact people. A total of 195 schools responded on this matter -- a response rate of 66 percent! "Exchanges" sought ranged from faculty and student exchanges and research cooperation to the establishment of joint degree programs. Appendix B contains a sample of the listings in the survey regarding exchange programs.

Concluding Comment

The Academy of International Business has long been deeply concerned with the development of the field of international business. It continues to express this concern in substantial and constructive ways -- one of the most significant being its sponsorship and publication of the periodic curricula surveys. The 1986 survey is rich with data and information which will invariably be of value to a variety of audiences -- professors, deans, publishers, etc. I hope those who use the survey let us know their opinions on it and share with us their thoughts on how the Academy can better serve their interests in the future.

ENDNOTES

[1] The Academy's first quarter-century of service is richly detailed in John Fayerweather, *A History of the Academy of International Business from Infancy to Maturity: The First 25 Years*, "Essays in International Business," Vol. 6 (Columbia, S.C.: College of Business Administration, the University of South Carolina, 1986).

[2] See, for example, R. L. Tung, "Selection and Training of Personnel for Overseas Assignments," *The Columbia Journal of World Business*, Vol. 16, No. 1 (Spring 1981), pp. 68-78.

[3] Steve Altman, Duane Kujawa and George Sutija, "A Survey of Academic Deans in the U.S., Europe and Latin America on Trends in Management Education over the Next Decade," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Academy of International Business, Las Vegas, June 1979.

Appendix A

"DIRECTORY-TYPE" INFORMATION
AACSB Schools

The following pages present general information concerning the AACSB responding schools. There are fifteen columns presenting the following information:

#1 The code number of the school.

#2 There is an (X) if the school has an International Business Department.

#3 There is an (X) if the school's international business program is handled as an area of a department.

#4 There is an (X) if at the corresponding school international business material is incorporated into functional courses.

#5 There is an (X) if functional area faculty members teach specific international business courses.

#6 There is an (X) if there if an International Business Director/Coordinator.

#7 There is an (X) if "other" arrangements exists to handle the international business program in this school.

#8 There is an (X) if there is an international business program but not within the College of Business Administration.

#9 There is an (X) if the corresponding school does not offer any course with international orientation in the College of Business Administration (CBA).

#10 The undergraduate full-time equivalent student enrollment in the CBA for the 1984-85 academic year.

#11 The undergraduate full-time equivalent student enrollment in the CBA for the 1981-82 academic year.

#12 The masters full-time equivalent student enrollment in the CBA for the 1984-85 academic year.

#13 The masters full-time equivalent student enrollment in the CBA for the 1981-82 academic year.

#14 The doctoral full-time equivalent student enrollment in the CBA for the 1984-85 academic year.

#15 The doctoral full-time equivalent student enrollment in the CBA for the 1981-82 academic year.

	#1	#2	#3	#4	#5	#6	#7	#8	#9	#10	#11	#12	#13	#14	#15
Adelphi University	001		X	X											
Air Force Institute of Technology	002		X	X	X										
University of Akron	003			X	X	X				2305	2260	318	335		
University of Alabema	004			x	x					3136	3917	230	200		
Alabama A&M University	005			X	X					915	830	258	316		
Alabama State University	006			X	X					704	797				
University of Alaska at Anchorage	007			X	X	X	X			505		89			
University of Alaska	008		X	X	X	X				500	400	50	50		
University of Alberta	009		X		X					1000	1000	100	100	7	
Alfred University	010						X			10					
American College	011								X						
American Graduate School of Int'l Mgt.	012							X				1040	950		
American International College	013	X								25					
American University	014	X			X	X				1200	1000	600	450		
Appalachian State University	015			X		X				3000		100			
University of Arizona	016			X						4898	5398	414	475	118	84
Arizona State University	017				X	X				10000		1000		200	
University of Arkansas at Fayetteville	018			X	X					3598	3856	279	251	79	100
University of Arkansas at Little Rock	019			X	X					2000	2000	75	35		
University of Arkansas at Monticello	020								X						
Arkansas Tech University	021			X						800	620				
Athabasca University	022								X						
Atlanta University	023				X							190			
Auburn University	024		X		X	X				3200	2700	50	60	10	
Auburn University at Montgomery	025						X			1947	1706	161	229		
Augusta College	026			X						800	770	200	180		
Babson College	027		X	X	X	X				1400	1300	760	750		
Ball State University	028		x	x	x	x	x			4677		141			
University of Baltimore	029			X	X	X				944	1011	469	476		
Baylor University	030			X	X					2600	2000	96	65		

The AACSB SCHOOLS: UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAMS

The following pages present the undergraduate programs of the responding AACSB schools. There are seventeen columns presenting the following information:

#1 The code number of the school.

#2 There is an (X) if there is an international business major.

#3 There is an (X) if there is an international business minor.

#4 There is an (X) if there is an international major in conjunction with functional area(s).

#5 There is an (X) if there is an international minor in conjunction with a functional area.

#6 There is an (X) if a foreign language(s) requirement for international business exists.

#7 There is an (X) if a foreign language(x) recommendation for international business exists.

The following questions refer to specific course offerings. A number refers to the number of sections offered for this course during the 1984-85 academic year. An (X) signifies that the course is in the bulletin, but not offered.

#8 International Accounting.

#9 International Business (general, overview).

#10 International Economics.

#11 International Finance (macro-finance).

#12 International Financial Management.

#13 International Business Law.

#14 International Management.

#15 International Marketing.

#16 Multinational Corporations.

#17 There exist "other" course offerings, signified by an (A). Refer to Appendix A for the complete questionnaire.

	#1	#2	#3	#4	#5	#6	#7	#8	#9	#10	#11	#12	#13	#14	#15	#16	#17
Adelphi University	001						x		4								
University of Akron	003			x			x		x			2	2	x	3	2	
University of Alabama	004		x			x	x	1	1	4	2		x		1		A
Alabama A&M University	005							2	4	2	2		5	5	3		
Alabama State University	006					x			1								
University of Alaska at Anchorage	007									x		x					
University of Alaska	008	x				x		x	x	x	x				x		
University of Alberta	009								x			x	x				
Alfred University	010			x	x		x			x	x				x		
American International College	013	x				x		1	1	1	1			1	1	1	
American University	014	x		x		x		1	7	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	
Appalachian State University	015		x					x	x	x	x		x	x	x		A
University of Arizona	016						x			x	x	x			x		
Arizon State University	017		x						3	4	2			5	1		A
University of Arkansas at Fayetteville	018									2	x						
University of Arkansas at Little Rock	019							x							x		
Auburn University	024	x				x				1		1		1	1		
Auburn University at Montgomery	025								x								
Augusta College	026								1	x							
Babson College	027		x		x		x		x	x	x	x		x	x		
Ball State University	028				x		x			1	4	1	1	1	3		A
University of Baltimore	029							x		1		1			1		A
Baylor University	030	x					x			2	2	1		1	3		
Beaver College	031									1					1		
Bellarmine College	032		x							1	1				1		A
Bemidji State University	033								x								
Birmingham-Southern College	034	x				x			x	x					x		
Bloomfield College	035								x								
Bloomsburg University	036									2	1	1			1		
Boston College	037						x						3	1			

The AACSB SCHOOLS: MASTERS PROGRAMS

In the following pages the masters programs of the responding AACSB schools are presented. There are seventeen columns presenting the following information:

#1 The code number of the school.

#2 There is an (X) if there is an international business major.

#3 There is an (X) if there is an international business minor.

#4 There is an (X) if there is an international major in conjunction with functional area(s).

#5 There is an (X) if there is an international minor in conjunction with a functional area.

#6 There is an (X) if a foreign language(s) requirement for international business exists.

#7 There is an (X) if a foreign language(s) recommendation for international business exists.

The following questions refer to specific course offerings. A number refers to the number of sections offered for this course during the 1984-85 academic year. An (X) signifies that the course is in the bulletin, but not offered.

#8 International Accounting.

#9 International Business (general, overview).

#10 International Economics.

#11 International Finance (macro-finance).

#12 International Financial Management.

#13 International Business Law.

#14 International Management.

#15 International Marketing.

#16 Multinational Corporations.

#17 There exist "other" course offerings, signified by an (A). Refer to Appendix A for the complete questionnaire.

	#1	#2	#3	#4	#5	#6	#7	#8	#9	#10	#11	#12	#13	#14	#15	#16	#17
Adelphi University	001								2	1	1	1			1		A
University of Akron	003	x				x	x	x	x			2		x		2	A
University of Alabama	004		x				x		1	1	1			1			
Alabama A&M University	005								2	1	1	1	1	2	1		
University of Alaska at Anchorage	007								x								
University of Alberta	009								x			x	x				
American Graduate School of Int'l Mgt	012	x				x		6		8	25	9	2	10	30		A
American University	014	x						1	2	1	1	2	1		1		
University of Arizona	016									x	x	x	x		x	x	
Arizona State University	017		x						1	2	1						A
University of Arkansas at Fayetteville	018									1	x			1	1		
Atlanta University	023							x	x		x				x		
Auburn University	024											1		1			
Augusta College	026								1	x							
Babson College	027	x		x		x		x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	
Ball State University	028				x		x			1	2	1	1	1	1		A
University of Baltimore	029	x								1		1	x		1	1	A
Baylor University	030	x				x				1		1			1		
Bellarmine College	032		x							1	1				1		A
Boston College	037												1	1	2	1	
Boston University	038							x	4		2			1	1		
Bowling Green State University	039	x					x		x		x					x	
Brigham Young University	040				x	x		1		1		1	1		1		A
University of British Columbia	041	x	x						x	x	x	x		x	x		
Bryant College	042									x							
University of California at Berkeley	044						x		2	2		3		2			A
University of California at Riverside	046										1			1	1		
California State University at Stanislaus	048								1						1		
California State University	052										x						
California State University at Los Angeles	053	x						x						2	3		

Appendix B

EXCHANGE PROGRAMS SOUGHT
Non-U.S. Schools

AC04 The University is in the process of establishing a masters program in Accounting and also in Business Administration and would be interested in student and faculty exchange programs. Contact persons: Jose Maria Martins Mender (or) James Edson Young at Universidade de Fortaleza, Centro de Ciencias Administrativas.

AC05 To share professional experiences and technical business administration programs in order to improve know-how. Contact person: Jose Joaquim Cruz Filho, NDE - Coordenator - P.O.Box 331, University Campus, Universidade Estadual de Maringa, 87100, Maringa, Parana, Brazil.

AC08 No description of objectives. Contact person: Lic. Jose Angel Chacon, Escuela Administration de Negocios, Universidad de Costa Rica, San Jose, Costa Rica.

AC10 1) To establish contacts with colleges of Business Administration in other countries. 2) To exchange thoughts and ideas with members of the faculty of those colleges 3) To be conversant with advanced courses and recent developments in Business Administration. 4) To bring about qualitative improvement in teaching in our college. Contact person: Dr. C. G. Vaidya, Principal, B. M. College of Commerce, Pune - 411004, India.

AC11 Faculty and student exchange programs. Contact person: Hong Jun-Jan, Department of International Economics, Economics College, Peking University, Beijing, P.R.C.

AC12 Ancient management history of China and Management of recent China are the graduate courses that we are going to introduce abroad and accept students from abroad. Contact person: Professor Chen Bing-Fu, Management Department, Nankai University.

AC13 1) To provide opportunity for faculty or student exchange at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels. 2) To collaborate in research. 3) To secure training opportunities for postgraduate training for staff and alumni. Contact person: Dean, Faculty of Business Administration, University of Lagos, Yaba, Nigeria.

AC14 For faculty development and promote brotherhood. Contact person: Dean Ofelia S. Vega, Aquinas University, Legazpi City, Philippines.

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THE GLOBAL ECONOMY AND HIGHER EDUCATION

by

Sven Groennings

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THE GLOBAL ECONOMY AND HIGHER ~~UNDERGRADUATE~~ EDUCATION

Sven Groennings

Internationalizing the undergraduate curriculum has become a high priority for colleges and universities across the country.

It will be my thesis that this is a challenge whose most powerful causes have become economic, and that the challenge must in part be met by ensuring that our students understand the global economy.

When we adjust the curriculum, we will validate a theory lightheartedly borrowed, with adaptation, from geophysics. This is the plate tectonics theory of curricular change: the earth moves, the curriculum responds. Today the global economic tremors are very powerful and will affect everyone. If the curriculum fails to respond, it will suffer shortcomings of relevance, which is a salient determinant of educational quality.

Higher education responded to early great tremors. Our [illegible] colleges and universities are themselves responses to external change, and they in turn have adjusted to changes in society, the economy, technology and national needs, for example those associated with the industrial revolution, the returning veterans, the demand for access to higher education, and the implications of Sputnik, whose symbolic successor is Toyota.

Nearly a century ago, Senator Justin Morrill of Vermont, author of the Morrill Act which created the unique American system of land-grant colleges and universities, recognized the international relevance of the new public universities system: [illegible]

> "Our artisans are to contend with the skill and wealth of many nations, and our farmers are sorely pressed by the competition of agricultural products which change and rapid communication pushes to the front in all markets both at home and abroad. To successfully withstand this formidable rivalry, our countrymen need . . . that fundamental instruction which is founded on the widest and best experiences of mankind."

The author is Director of the New England Board of Higher Education's project on "The Global Economy and Higher Education in New England" and a member of The Atlantic Council's Standing Committee on Education and the Successor Generation

Today we face a comparable challenge, and again its roots are economic. It is a far broader challenge than that which we faced in the era of Justin Morrill. Morrill spoke of "competition .... in all markets, both at home and abroad." He understood that we faced global competition and a world market which included the American market. For us as consumers, very visibly, the world market is not only in Tokyo and London, but also very much in Boston and Minneapolis. According to the U.S. Department of Commerce, 80% of all American made goods now face international competition, either at home or abroad.

The American economy is becoming increasingly connected to international markets and investment while also becoming knowledge-intensive, producing high technology goods in international competition and providing sophisticated services internationally. These are major changes in dimension and in kind. They are at the cutting edges of economic development, and they are being shaped within a broader global economy.

This new global economy is different from the economy Justin Morrill knew in fundamental ways. The difference is not only quantitative, reflected in the accelerating internationalization of business and enormously increased trade with Asia. It is also systemic, as operations have become global. Perhaps a third of U.S. trade moves between members of the same firm; the foreign and domestic divisions of the same corporation ship to one another. Our firms manufacture components overseas in order to be competitive, and manufacturing requirements involve our engineers in technology transfer across cultures. Marketing has become global, as one can see in airline, hotel chain, banking, advertising and accounting firm activities, quite aside from the selling of manufactured and agricultural products abroad. Finance has become global, financial flows across borders have become enormous, and financing of new operations may be obtained in several countries. Foreign subsidiaries have become common in all major market economies: New England alone, with only 5.3% of the U.S. population, is home to 1,500; there are another 1,000 in New Jersey.

It is [redacted] characteristic of the global economy that firms based in different countries seek working relationships with one another in order to enhance capabilities for global competition, and so almost daily we read about transnational joint ventures, marketing agreements, mergers, acquisitions, licensing arrangements, supply agreements and production arrangements. It follows that corporate management in general, beyond the traditional export division, faces new complexity: negotiation of transnational agreements, coordination of marketing, production and other activities among subsidiaries of and partners in other countries, and international personnel management.

Strategic thinking necessarily is evolving toward an integrated view of domestic and foreign operations and markets. Management must watch the competition in a global context and deal with foreign governments.

This said, my point is very simple: we are operating in a new business system, and the global economy of which we are a part is based on new ways of managing and thinking.

Now for a parallel thought: our economy, which is increasingly based on high tech and services, is also knowledge-based. Our comparative advantage in the global economy is based on innovative productivity, technical skills and high levels of knowledge. Newly industrialized countries can master routines and make wonderful products at low cost. In contrast, our competitive base is in new products and therefore in innovative thinking, research and development, and, also necessarily, in dealing competently cross-culturally.

Thus in the knowledge based economy which is also global, the role of our universities and colleges emerges as an underpinning of competitiveness. Higher education becomes the key to our prosperity and to our ability to earn enough to pay for our national defense and public services. It is higher education that is our bedrock in preparing our scientists and engineers, as well as our managers for the global economy. It is also a function of higher education to ensure citizen understanding of the global economic system which is creating vulnerabilities as well as opportunities for our citizens.

Competitiveness as a Problem for Higher Education

Now let us turn to competitiveness as a problem and the role of higher education in improving our position. Higher education gained a responsibility for the improvement and competitiveness of agriculture in the era of Justin Morrill. We have an even bigger responsibility today.

In 1986 the United States trade deficit was $156.2 billion, a record deficit in a series of record deficits. This country has retrogressed from being the world's largest creditor nation to being the world's leading debtor country. By 1990 the United States may owe foreigners as much as $700 billion.

When our competitiveness declines, we all suffer. Some people lose jobs. At the level of the national interest, major economic imbalances change international relationships and erode our capacity for leadership internationally. The essence of the situation is that competitiveness is becoming America's leading problem. It is a long-term problem requiring long-term strategies; there is no quick fix and no single solution. Overcoming the problem requires an inter-related set of strategic approaches involving all three major sectors: government, business, and higher education. This tripartite responsibility is in accord with the division of blame for America's weak performance: some people blame the rules of the game, some blame our team managers, and some say we need to learn how to play better.

Higher education is, or should be, a major actor: what we can do in the global economy is shaped by what we know. We are competing not only with other economic systems, but also with the learning systems of the economically successful.

Higher education has a stake in the outcome, both broadly and narrowly, in the sense that it draws its revenues from employed families, taxes upon private sector profits, interest from endowment invested in corporations, and donations and research support from corporations. It is also a major element of the economy: New England higher education institutions, for example, have an aggregate budget of $8 billion, with twice that sum additionally in spillover effects such as local spending by students. Higher education is also a generator of the economy, conducting two-thirds of the basic research in the United States and spinning off high technology corporations; MIT alone has spun off hundreds which employ tens of thousands of people, and it is such research and such technologies that are the key to our future economic performance.

Higher education is [redacted] a major global resource. It has expertise about other countries and peoples. It is one of the most globally competitive components of the American economy, a major export sector whose services, contacts and clientele are global.

In contributing to competitiveness, higher education faces two fronts: one technical and the other international. We have been addressing the first, seeking renewal of laboratories and sharply increasing the number of engineering baccalaureates, moving the technical personnel problem to one of Ph.D. production and faculty shortages.

Higher education has not similarly addressed the international dimension. Yet we know that international knowledge is a key factor in the success of our Japanese competitors who by a variety of educational and marketing strategies compensate extraordinarily for [redacted] having a distant location and a language unrelated to that used in any of their overseas markets. We know that the development of foreign markets is necessary for American employment and productivity, yet also that lack of international knowledge inhibits our ability to increase the number of our firms engaging in export activity. We understand that as the technological prowess of other countries increases, the United States could be less competitive if foreign companies are superior in adapting and interacting internationally. We know that we do better when we speak the languages of our potential customers.

Corporate survey research tells us that we expect the pressure to compete internationally will increase and at the same time that we lack sufficient global perspective and international knowledge to take advantage of existing opportunities. Moreover, while internationalization is increasing, overseas managerial assignments are declining and are expected to continue to decrease, so that the increasingly important international learning function must move from direct experience to higher education.

The ~~NEBHE~~ New England Survey

How well is higher education doing? What should it be doing? The New England Board of Higher Education asked New England corporate, government and higher education leaders, as part of a survey on New England's economic future: how effective is higher education in preparing us for participation in the global economy? ~~There are~~ 824 ~~replies [illegible] tabulated.~~ In understated conclusion, the replies indicate room for improvement.

There was a follow-on question: what are the most important ways in which higher education can prepare our work force for the global economy? The standard answer in various reports has been: train more scientists and engineers. And that came in second. All the leadership groups--corporate, government and higher education--listed in first place: "Design an undergraduate curriculum that ensures understanding of a global economy." That is stunning, not only because it is new, but also because it is not happening anywhere.

Now, two more questions for us to ponder: where is international education headed as a field? And, what is actually happening on the campuses and why?

International Education: Changing Field

American higher education was not very international until after World War II. It became increasingly international as the United States became a world power, as faculties focused on world problems, and as literally millions of foreign students came to our campuses. Enrollment expansion from two million to twelve million across the forty years made it possible to expand the curriculum and greatly increase international offerings.

The post war framework was not the global economy. The concerns were to develop the expertise that a world power needed for relations with new countries and in the context of the global political-military confrontation. We developed a triad of federal programs, all important for our faculty development. All are enduringly important and all focus on expertise, not undergraduate education. The Fulbright Program, originally funded by sales of overseas military equipment, focuses on expert knowledge. Area studies programs, [redacted] for which funding authorization was first provided under the National Defense Education Act, creates expertise. AID'S technical assistance programs, which grew in response to President Truman's Point Four, provides expertise to other countries. These programs function primarily at the doctoral and professional levels.

By the 1980's, the globalization of the economy was well underway. Local stores increasingly marketed foreign goods. Doing American business increasingly meant doing business with the rest of the world. The international economic element in American life became more of an everyday reality than national-level issues of national security.

Therefore, international education is undergoing a paradigm shift along three fundamental dimensions:

* First, its rationale is moving beyond the earlier predominant emphasis on national security toward a vigorous emphasis on economic change and international competitiveness, with increasing focus on the business curriculum.

* Second, it is edging away from [redacted] Washington ~~dominance~~ toward additional centers whose focus is more heavily economic, such as Boston and Seattle, Atlanta and ~~Minneapolis~~ Los Angeles, that is, toward nationwide local interest alongside nation-state national interest.

* Third, it is moving beyond the production of experts, whose supply obviously will continue to be essential to national foreign policy capabilities, and toward general education for informed citizenship and all the professions.

The globalization of the American economy is the second wave pushing internationalization, following global political-military concerns, and it appears to be the larger wave. It is the major reason why attention in international education is shifting from graduate to undergraduate education, and why internationalization has become important not only at institutions educating for international expertise but at higher education institutions generally.

Centeredness

What Is Happening on the Campuses?

In complement to its survey research, the New England Board of Higher Education undertook a field study to [redacted] ascertain what is and is not happening at 40 colleges and universities, among them institutions of every type. That it found increasing international content and activity at all 40 suggests that internationalization has become one of the most powerful substantive developments in the history of American higher education. Approximately one-fifth of these institutions are involved in aspects of multi-faceted planning of their international dimension, comprehensively considering such elements as curriculum, faculty development, study abroad programs, foreign students, visiting faculty, relationships with foreign institutions, and new programmatic and hierarchical structures. More generally, foreign language study is on the upswing. International courses in the liberal arts have growing enrollments. There is a tremendous increase in student interest in courses pertaining to China and Japan. The number of foreign students is increasing, there is growing participation in study abroad programs, and relationships with foreign institutions are being more strategically planned and becoming more comprehensive. There also is growing student demand for courses in international business.

Yet essentially the surging internationalization on the campuses is weakly connected to the globalization of the economy. As the two movements are essentially on separate, parallel tracks, it can be constructive to contemplate linkage.

In the liberal arts, there are no general introductory courses on the global economy incorporating a business perspective, yet it is a function of the liberal arts to familiarize students with major phenomena and concerns, such as the global economy, which will have impact upon their lives and careers. Most liberal arts students will work for firms. Survey research tells us that designing "an undergraduate curriculum that ensures understanding of a global economy" is an idea whose time has come.

Few business students study a foreign language, and [redacted] rarely is there integration of foreign language and business programs. Although the most vital geographic area study programs, especially those focusing on East Asia, coincide with areas of business dynamism, area study programs rarely include business perspectives and still are offered virtually entirely by the humanities and social science faculties who were the answer to yesteryear's imperative. There are very few internships in international business; surely they are available to far fewer than one percent of those who study abroad. While there is growing interest in international business in the business community, there is very little by way of continuing education or executive development programs in international business. There are shortages of faculty and case materials in international business.

Beyond curriculum, higher education might also consider ways to design mutually beneficial partnerships with business and government to bring to bear the talents [redacted] of higher education as a community resource for expanding international contacts and for consulting, translating, and attracting foreign investment. In the knowledge-based economy, high technology and service firms are attracted to the knowledge centers, graduates and cultural ambience provided by higher education. Yet there probably have been no attempts beyond the Delaware Valley to build international partnerships parallel to the industrial research partnerships between corporations and universities.

There are agendas to be contemplated, and strategic, integrated focus is needed. Yet campus internationalization is otherwise proceeding with gusto.

There are five causes of the ongoing internationalization of higher education, of which economic change is becoming the most powerful. The second is the incorporation of international substance into accreditation standards by the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business and, this year, by the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education. The third is the impetus provided by a series of reports on the quality of undergraduate education from the American Association of State Colleges and Universities, the Association of American Colleges, the National Endowment for the Humanities, the National Institute of Education, and the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, all of which have called for focus on the international dimension. In complement have come reports from the Business-Higher Education Forum and earlier from the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies. The fourth cause of of the internationalization of the curriculum is the nascent but accelerating internationalization of the academic disciplines; This development at the "grass roots" of academic life complements the thrust of the national reports and shows that internationalization is deeper than a fad. The disciplines are often the gatekeepers of educational change, and the harbingers of changes in the curriculum are new perspectives in the disciplines.

The fifth cause is people: committed new leaders, increasingly internationally minded faculties, and students who increasingly have been abroad and expect their educations to have an international component. In our research in New England, most institutions cited student consumer interest as a cause of internationalization. The University of Massachusetts, New England's largest public institution, gave us some interesting data based on random sampling: 97% of the students value the university's international development, 95% value the presence of foreign teachers, students and scholars, and 65% have travelled outside of the United States.

Clearly the time is ripe to internationalize the curriculum. The issue is how to do it. There are many approaches, and different ones may be appropriate for different institutions, depending on mission, capabilities, and opportunities. There may also be many objectives, including cross-cultural and geopolitical understanding, with attention to issues of national security and arms control, or understanding the problems of third world economic development. Some may wish to promote understanding of particular aspects of interdependence and to focus on mineral and food resources, the oceans, migration, transnational environmental problems, and international communications systems. One has to decide on objectives as well as approach, i.e. on both ends and means.

The curriculum is important because it is the teaching, with the learner-centered activities, that prepares society to respond to change. The educational sector may or may not be a cause of technological or other changes transforming our country and our future, but it is the great explainer, familiarizing people with things to come, making them acceptable, and preparing the nation for constructive engagement. When education lags, the nation's ability to adapt, to progress, and to compete is impeded. The greater the rate of change in technology and the world around us, the more and the faster education needs to adapt.

The great change today [redacted] is economic. The challenge of the global economy to this country is a challenge to higher education. It is clear that American higher education institutions are not making the appropriate connections between economic change, competitiveness, and international education. It is a need that Justin Morrill [redacted] surely would have found it fitting for our universities to address . It is important now and for the decades ahead that they consider their role in developing the competencies and citizen understanding needed for American participation, prosperity and leadership in the global economy.

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THE CULTURAL INFLUENCE IN ACCOUNTING STANDARD SETTING: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE UNITED STATES, CANADA, AND ENGLAND

by

Robert Bloom
John Carroll University in Ohio

M.A. Naciri
University of Quebec in Montreal

Stephen Laribee
Eastern Michigan University

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> ... Standard-setting in accounting is not based on any scientific theory, but rather is the result of the interaction of theory and practice with various environmental influences. There are few, if any, objective criteria to guide the setting of standards. -- J.R.E. Parker (1974)

I. INTRODUCTION

This paper analyzes the different accounting standard-setting processes in three countries: the United States, Canada and England. Accounting Standards are principles, policies, or rules of measurement and disclosure that are followed in the preparation of financial reports. This study is based largely on an examination of relevant international accounting literature on the subject of standard setting. The differences and similarities of the standard-setting processes are highlighted with a view to examining the cultural aspects of each country and how they implicitly impact the standard-setting frameworks. Thus, the hypothesis of this paper is that the approaches used to establish accounting standards are a function of cultural values and factors inherent in each country. Accordingly, standard-setting approaches vary considerably from country to country.

The extent to which the standard-setting process in each country is conducted in the public versus private sector is studied. The rationale is provided for the particular framework used to formulate accounting standards in each country. Which party--be it public or private--dominates the standard-setting process apparently depends on the overall environment in which financial accounting and reporting prevails, including the nature and stature of the accounting profession in each country. A standard-setting framework should meet the needs of a particular country. There are significant differences from country to country in socioeconomic, legal, and political environments as well as traditions.

Since this paper deals with "culture," a composite definition of this term is called for:

> Culture may be defined as a multifaceted concept that essentially pertains to knowledge about human behavior or patterns that is passed on from one generation to another. However, such patterns may well change over the years to meet new environmental conditions.

Devine, a respected accounting philosopher, has argued (1960):

> ... If accounting is to be a profession the accountant must look to the accepted social standard of the place and time and use existing social attitudes as they are expressed in the form of laws, customs, administrative decisions, religious edicts, and the like, as the basis for subjective decision. Members of the accounting profession should sense and appraise the relative desirability or undesirability of certain demands by applying the customs and laws that guide the social group. Then with knowledge of the probable effects of certain lines of accounting action the profession can translate the general attitudes of society into accounting rules that will help accomplish socially desirable behavior and discourage undesirable behavior. The accepted body of accounting doctrine may, therefore, change radically from time to time, and leaders of the profession must be equipped with an understanding of social institutions sufficient to interpret intelligently the meaning of social trends and changes.

Devine makes a persuasive case for examining social attitudes and customs as a foundation for developing accounting standards. However, Bedford and Dopuch take a countervailing view (1961):

> ...[A]nalyzing the goals of society as they are expressed and conveyed in customs and traditions and even laws is no guaranty that these expressions and conveyances represent all factions of the populace. Often they represent the the successful efforts of minorities who can make their viewpoints seem as reflections of society (e.g., what social values on a national scale guide import quotas ...). On the other hand, what degree of significance should be assigned to those values expressed by the majority? Do not minority interests have a social right to demand that accounting disclose information useful to them?...

In sum, this paper attempts to examine the cultural and environmental influences inherent in accounting standard-setting processes. The informational content of this paper should be especially useful in teaching international accounting, a subject that cannot be neglected in accounting programs, since schools of business administration that are accredited by the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business are indeed required to cover international business throughout their curricula, including the accounting discipline. Indeed, the American Accounting Association Committee on Future Education has asserted (1986, p.181):

> ...[T]he professional accountant [will not] function well in the international world of business without knowledge of different cultures....

Part II of this paper provides an analysis of the standard-setting processes in the United States, Canada, and England, along with an attempt to explain the differences in these processes based on cultural factors. Part III summarizes the findings set forth in Part II and speculates about the cultural influence on accounting standard-setting in general.

II. ANALYSIS

THE UNITED STATES

The Financial Accounting Standards Board (FASB) has been the principal standard-setting body in the United States since 1973. It is a private organization, independent of all other organizations, which is responsible for establishing principles or standards of financial accounting and reporting. The standards are recognized as authoritative by the Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC), through Accounting Series Release 150 in 1973. Representing the government agency with which publicly-owned corporations are required to submit annual and periodic reports, the SEC has had the legal authority since 1934 to formulate accounting standards. The SEC has by and large delegated the role of establishing accounting standards to the FASB and its predecessors. Publicly-owned corporations are required to adhere to FASB standards; otherwise the SEC, which supports the standards, can bar such companies from trading their securities.

The key role of the SEC is to foster full disclosure of material facts pertaining to securities offered in public sales. The SEC also establishes disclosure standards for proxy solicitation, which serve as a mechanism for regulating corporate disclosure. Through its integrated disclosure system, the SEC has promoted improved financial reporting by simplifying disclosure requirements and encouraging a fusion of SEC reports and annual financial reports. The SEC reviews and evaluates the work of the FASB, so that the FASB cannot perform its functions without the SEC's authorization. If the SEC is dissatisfied with the FASB's performance on any issue, the SEC asserts itself to the point of stepping into the standard-setting process; and it has done that in accounting for the investment tax credit, leases, oil and gas, and changing prices.

Before the FASB was established, accounting was conducted by the Accounting Principles Board (APB), which was part of the

American Institute of Certified Public Accountants (AICPA), the major organization of CPAs in the United States. The APB was a part-time, unsalaried council of eighteen to twenty-one CPAs, which prevailed from 1959 to 1973.

Prior to the establishment of the APB, another body within the AICPA was responsible for formulating accounting principles--the Committee on Accounting Procedure (CAP). Created in 1937 to narrow the alternative standards or policies management could select in financial reporting, CAP had essentially the same charge that was subsequently given to the APB and FASB. Until its function was assumed by the APB in 1959, CAP, which consisted entirely of CPAs mostly in public practice, generated fifty-one accounting research bulletins. CAP pronouncements were supposedly adhered to based on general acceptance. CAP was replaced by the APB, the latter having been supported by a research staff. Under the auspices of the APB, research studies were conducted on various issues prior to issuance of opinions or standards. Furthermore, in 1964, the AICPA required its members to adhere to APB opinions in external financial reports and to report deviations from such opinions and the rationale for such deviations.

In conformity with the recommendations of the AICPA Study Group on Establishment of Accounting Principles (also known as the Wheat Committee, 1972), the FASB was established as a private organization. The APB was an arm of the AICPA; that is not the case with the FASB. The FASB has a much smaller membership and more autonomy than the APB ever did. Funding for the FASB comes from contributions and publication sales.

The FASB has seven full-time members, none of whom is currently required to be a CPA. While their backgrounds vary, all are knowledgeable in accounting and business matters. Upon joining the FASB, each member must end employment in other organizations, so as to be considered completely independent in appearance as well as in fact. The FASB members are selected by the Financial Accounting Foundation, which consists of members from various sponsoring organizations concerned with corporate financial reporting and government accounting. The foundation elects a board of fifteen trustees, twelve for the FASB and three for the new Governmental Accounting Standards Board (GASB).

To be able to appreciate the nature and mechanism of the American standard-setting body, i.e., the FASB, students should be acquainted with standard-setting frameworks in other countries and how cultural differences between such countries appear to impact the nature of such frameworks.

The FASB operates entirely in the "sunshine." All its meetings are open to the public, which has a great deal of opportunity to make its views known throughout the standard-setting process. Such openness is designed to ensure that the publi[illegible]rest is considered in standard-setting and to enable the Board to understand many different perspectives on the underlying issues and possible alternative solutions.

CANADA

Both Canada and the U.S. rely on central standard-setting entities, but there is no federal Securities and Exchange Commission in Canada as in the U.S. Companies that are incorporated under the Canada Business Corporations Act (CBCA, 1975) or under provincial corporation acts are required to follow the Canadian Institute of Chartered Accountants (CICA) *Handbook* (i.e., a collection of explicit standards and guidelines in financial reporting which was started in 1968). Furthermore, Administrators of Provincial Securities Commissions in Canada have issued national policy statements requiring adherence to the *Handbook* by companies whose securities are publicly traded. Nonetheless, there is no federal government agency to enforce CICA standards. The provincial commissions enforce CICA standards especially in Ontario and Quebec.

In contrast to the conditions that prevail in the U.S., with the adversarial relationship between the FASB and SEC:

> There appears to be no serious adversary situation between the private and public sectors in Canada with regard to accounting or auditing standards. The government, through its legislative powers, retains ultimate control over the standard-setting process in the sense that it may mandate change if and when circumstances require it, but appears content to allow the private sector (subject to an occasional unofficial prod), to interpret users needs in financial reporting and respond to them by establishing measurement and disclosure standards within the context of the broad disclosure requirements of various Acts and regulations ....(CICA *Report of the Special Committee on Standard Setting,* Toronto, 1979, G.102.)

However, subsequent to issuance of this committee report, in 1981 and 1982, there was considerable friction between the CICA and the Canadian federal government over the accounting method to be used for Petroleum Incentives Program grants. The federal government in the final analysis decided to allow the CICA to have its way.[1]

While the AICPA is no longer the standard-setting body in the United States, the CICA remains as such in Canada. Whereas the FASB is an independent standard-setting body, the Accounting Standards Committee (AcSC) is an arm of the CICA. Table 1 furnishes a breakdown of the principal differences among the American, Canadian and British frameworks.

Canada's passion for secrecy is reflected in its standard-setting process. The AcSC holds no open meetings or public hearings whatsoever, and there is no public call for the AcSC to do so. The AcSC does not presently indicate in each accounting standard the number of committee members who voted in favor of, and the number who voted against, the standard as well as the rationale for the negative votes. The reason for such confidentiality, which is consistent with the Canadian penchant for secrecy, is to foster the AcSC's independence from external pressures. Also, the AcSC makes limited use of external task forces and circulates exposure drafts to the public only upon specific request, placing considerable reliance on the confidential associates of each committee member in the standard-setting process. By contrast, the FASB holds all its meetings open to the public and specifies in the standards the number of board members who voted in favor of each standard and those who voted against along with the reasons for their dissents; the AcSC does no such thing. An external task force is appointed by the FASB for each project; that has not generally been the case with the AcSC. The FASB circulates publicly all its discussion memorandums and exposure drafts on each issue under consideration. By contrast, AcSC circulates only exposure drafts to the public. Thus, the Canadian public is not apprised of the AcSC's position on any issue until late in the standard-setting process.

While Americans were dissatisfied with their Accounting Principles Board (APB), the standard-setting authority in the U.S. from 1959 to 1973, Canada's AcSC bears a striking resemblance to the APB. An arm of the CICA, the AcSC has 22 part-time, unpaid members who serve 3-year terms. While the APB, which was an arm of the American Institute of Certified Public Accountants (AICPA), proved to be unacceptable as the standard-setting authority in the U.S., the AcSC is considered the legitimate standard setter in Canada. The APB was replaced by the FASB, which has been independent of all other organizations including the AICPA, and has 7 full-time, well-paid members, who serve 5 year terms.

Not adversarial by nature, Canadians have yet to complain openly that the AcSC lacks independence, in view of the fact that its members hold full-time positions in major accounting firms and other organizations. The AcSC does have a heavy, full-time workload. So too did the APB. It was the lack of independence coupled with a heavy workload, among other factors, that served to "undo" the APB. One must wonder how the AcSC can prevail under similar conditions that undermined the APB. What is suitable for Canada, however, in the realm of standard setting may well be unsuitable for the U.S. and vice versa, since the two countries have different cultures and traditions. Additionally, an FASB-type body may well be far too costly for

Canada, which has a much smaller population than the U.S. (25 versus 240 million, respectively).

Zeff (1985) has observed that Canada and the U.S. have different fundamental cultural values:

U.S. : freedom diminished by periodic need to cope with instances of unscrupulous dealing.

Canada : freedom moderated by social justice.

In specific terms:

1. Canadians are much less likely to lodge lawsuits to solve their problems than Americans. Canadians are less aggressive and less adversarial than their American counterparts. Canada is less of a leader, and more of a follower, than the U.S. Americans have a boundless optimism that they can resolve their problems, whatever they may be, in accounting and beyond. That optimism is not apparent among Canadians.
2. Canada's parliamentary process is based on the British approach.
3. Canada is much more of a welfare state than the U.S.
4. There is a much greater emphasis on government corporations in Canada than in the U.S.
5. Standards issued by the CICA are supported by the federal Canada Business Corporations Act and also by various Canadian provincial security commissions.
6. Many chief financial executives in Canadian organizations are chartered accountants.2

Canadian accounting relies heavily on the professional judgment of standard setters, management accountants, and chartered accountants, much more so than is the case in the U.S. Canadian standards are looser than their American counterparts, again in conformity with the accent on professional judgment. Canada tends to adopt standards on particular subjects only after the U.S. and Britain have implemented their own standards on these subjects, and Canada adapts such standards eclectically. In accordance with its image as a welfare state, Canada has a comprehensive accounting standard on governmental assistance as does Britain, in contrast to the U.S. There are also fewer Canadian as well as British standards in sharp contrast to the number of American standards, again due in part to the emphasis on professional judgment in these countries, but also due to the fact that only a small percentage of the Canadian and British public invests in the stock market.

The various differences between the Canadian and American standard-setting frameworks and modus operandi can also be explained in terms of professional judgment, illustrated by the failure to adopt and use an explicit conceptual framework or constitution of objectives, qualitative attributes, and elements of financial reporting in the Canadian standard-setting process, and the laid-back, non-aggressive attitude of Canadians, illustrated by their willingness to accept the pronouncements of the AcSC even though the members of this committee do not appear to be independent.

In light of increased trade with the U.S. and the fact that Americans began to lead the way in accounting education, the American influence in Canada began to supersede that of the British in the 1920s and 1930s. Additionally, with the immigration influx of the post World War II period, Canada has become a polyglot, multicultural nation considerably less British-oriented. Furthermore, the extent of American investments in Canada has increased markedly in the postwar period. Indeed, Canadian accounting appears in large part to be a microcosm of its American counterpart. The American influence is so significant that, for example, Canada has not adopted social accounting reports, which have been adopted in several European countries such as France, West Germany, and Britain, despite the strong, militant unions that prevail in Canada as well as Europe, in contrast to the United States.3

Another characteristic of Canadians is that they are in general highly risk-adverse,4 and shy away from stock market investments and speculative transactions. Canadians distrust big business, and prefer to keep their money in savings accounts. In view of the fact that the Canadian public is not heavily involved in the equity capital markets, it might be asserted that Canada does not need the same kind of accounting standards as does the U.S. Additionally, Canadian business is by and large conducted by private rather than public companies. The Handbook represents the explicit Canadian generally accepted accounting principles (GAAP), which constitute only a very small percentage of Canadian GAAP; much of Canadian GAAP is not codified as such and thus is not part of the Handbook.

Canadians are much more inclined than Americans to accept authority--e.g., that of the CICA to set accounting standards. Moreover, Canadians are less apt than Americans to argue about accounting standards and to take their cases to the federal and provincial governments for resolution.

American standard setting is more overtly concerned with the economic and political consequences of standards than is the case in Canada. Nevertheless, economic and political consequences occurred subsequent to issuance by the CICA of accounting pronouncements for leases (1978), foreign currency translation (1979), and guidelines for the petroleum incentives program (PIP) grants (1982). There may be several reasons for the lack of emphasis by the AcSC on economic and political consequences:

(1) The AcSC may wish to maintain a sense of autonomy and insulate itself from political pressures and lobbyists.

(2) Canadians as opposed to Americans are less inclined to act adversarially.

(3) Canadian standards are generally formulated after the corresponding American standards have been instituted, and the AcSC may conceivably be reluctant to change a standard that has already been established in the U.S.

(4) Major Canadian companies with significant American interests fall under the jurisdiction of the SEC and thus adhere to American GAAP to a large extent, taking their complaints about particular standards to the FASB and the SEC rather than the AcSC and provincial security commissions.

(5) The AcSC members may conceivably be unaware of the possible economic impact of accounting standards.

It might be said, however, that the lack of a conceptual framework in Canada enhances the political nature of standard setting and the need for compromises, though a conceptual framework is most assuredly not a panacea for resolving controversies concerning alternative accounting policies.

ENGLAND

Zeff (1985) has observed that the fundamental British cultural value is:

> freedom tempered by desire to preserve traditional modes of behavior (with a genius for instituting fundamental reforms swiftly, once the pressures for change reach the flash point); moderated by social justice.

This cultural value is implicitly reflected in the British standard-setting process. Indeed, the process described below was adopted in in 1970 to meet public and media pressure for reform in standard setting. As Lee (1975, p. 29) says:

> ...The late 1960s witnessed a sharp and dramatic increase in the level of criticism of the accountancy

> profession, particularly with regard to the flexibility of accounting practice. This resulted, in 1970, in the publication of the "Statement of Intent on Accounting Standards" in the 1970s of The Institute of Chartered Accountants in England and Wales, with its stated objectives of "narrowing the areas of difference and variety in accounting practice," its recommendation of "disclosure of accounting bases" and "disclosure of departures from established definitive accounting standards"; "wider exposure for major new proposals on accounting standards"; and a "continuing programme for encouraging improved accounting standards in legal and regulatory measures." The initiative was followed up by the formation, in conjunction with other major accountancy bodies, of the Accounting Standards Steering Committee, the commencement of a stated programme of research on individual accounting and reporting problems, the subsequent formulation and publication of EXPOSURE DRAFTS of proposed accounting standards, and the eventual publication by the respective Councils of STATEMENTS of STANDARD ACCOUNTING PRACTICE, which are mandatory on all members of the relevant professional bodies.

Standard setting in England is essentially the function of the Accounting Standards Committee (ASC), a private body separate and apart from the government. The ASC, much like the old American APB in structure, serves to carry out the British Companies Acts, though the ASC has no enforcement authority. The ASC, established as a result of accounting scandals and a public outcry against too many alternative accounting methods, consists of 20 part-time, unpaid members, who may not be independent in the full sense of the word, and who are not required to be accountants. Five of them are "users" of financial reports. The ASC requires each of six consultative bodies--the Consultative Committee of Accountancy Bodies (CCAB)--to nominate members to fill vacancies, and the ASC operates thru these consultative bodies. The standards set forth by the ASC are not mandatory by law, in contrast to Canadian and American standards, though the ASC does have the authority to discipline for lack of adherence to its standards, an authority which it has yet to exert. Nonetheless, auditors do point out lack of compliance in qualified audit opinions, and so too does the Stock Exchange.

The British Companies Acts constitute the basic legal framework and a source of "standards" in the broad sense of the term in accordance with the Canada Business Corporations Act. The Companies Acts incorporate directives of the European Economic Community (EEC) in regard to the quality and scope of financial reports, even though the emphasis in Britain has traditionally been on the unwritten common law. In addition to the Companies Acts, court decisions pertaining to their compliance or lack thereof also constitute accounting law for all intents and purposes. The standard-setting process in England can be characterized by the following stages.5

With respect to identification of topics, they come from the ASC's list of projects or agenda. Topics may stem from a special request from an interested party. Additionally, standards may be the result of a change in the law, or may result from an international development. The ASC monitors developments by the EEC, the U.S. and the International Federation of Accountants (IFAC). The Planning Sub-Committee of the ASC takes account of suggestions made by other members of the ASC. The Planning Sub-Committee advises on the need for research, recommends the composition of working parties, and oversees their operations. Also the Planning Sub-Committee considers and reviews documents before they are put to the ASC for discussion and final decision.6

Research Studies are carried out, perhaps by one of the Consultative Committees of Accountancy Bodies (CCAB).7 Results of the studies serve to clarify the issues and provide a basis for further decisions.8 Research studies are considered by the ASC. A decision is made on whether to pursue each study. If ASC decides to pursue a study, a working party is formed, and the ASC tells the working party what types of documents are required. Working parties consist primarily of non-ASC members, though such parties may be chaired by an ASC member. There are three possible documents: (1) a discussion paper, which is optional, exploratory, and does not set out the proposed text of a final standard; (2) a statement of intent, which is optional, representing a public statement issued by the ASC and indicating how the ASC will deal with the matter; (3) an exposure draft, which is required, and contains a preface to the main text and sets out the background and arguments.9

The ASC must be kept abreast of the working party's progress. The working party provides feedback to the ASC at an early stage in the form of: (1) the planned technical content of the document, and (2) a Consultation Plan, which identifies the groups that will be accepted and consulted with as well as the Department of Trade; and considers any legal problems. In addition, the Consultation Plan sets out plans for involvement of the CCAB, provides provisions for public hearings and consultation with financial-statement users. Furthermore, it contains a press plan and a timetable.

After the ASC has agreed in principle with the working party, the working party carries out its plan. Findings of the working party are submitted to the ASC. The ASC makes necessary changes in the draft. Once the ASC is satisfied with the draft, it is approved for publication. This period usually lasts six months. Communicators or respondents formulate comments and submit them in writing to the ASC. The working party is "on call" during this period to defend its findings.

Following the exposure period, the working group meets to consider the letters and comments received from respondents. The working party prepares and presents to the ASC a summary of the reactions and recommendations. The ASC deliberates and makes a decision. Redrafting is carried out by the working party, and there is further consultation if required. When redrafting and consultations are completed, a final draft is presented to the ASC. Some rework may be required, which is then carried out until the ASC is satisfied. The draft standard is subsequently sent to the CCAB for approval. Finally, the standard is approved by the CCAB. Enforcement of the standard is carried out by the CCAB. The CCAB also publishes the standard.

Table 1 furnishes a breakdown of the principal differences among the American, Canadian, and British standard-setting frameworks.

It should be emphasized that the British ASC prepares Statements of Standard Accounting Practice (SSAPs), which constitute accounting standards, as well as Statements of Recommended Accounting Practice (SORPs) for each issue which does not meet all the criteria for an accounting standard. SORPs are "stand-alone" documents (i.e., not related to other standards) and are non-mandatory. Additionally, the ASC issues Statements of Intent (SOI), a new form of advisory document to indicate how the committee expects to deal with specific accounting issues. Interpretations of standards are not provided by the ASC. Adherence to SORPs is encouraged, but not mandatory.

It should also be emphasized that the ASC prepares, but does not issue or enforce, accounting standards; that is the role of the six members of the CCAB. Such standards are fewer in number and looser than their American counterparts. Also, in conformity with the Fourth Directive of the EEC, emphasis is placed in standard setting on conveying "a true and fair view," on economic substance rather than legal form. Nonetheless, the standard setting process in Britain as in the U.S. is influenced by economic consequences. Furthermore, there is a great deal of openness in the British framework with respect to standard setting as in its American, but not its Canadian, counterpart, in terms of issuing exposure drafts, holding public hearings, and issuing standards fully providing the rationale for them.

The British system emphasizes pragmatism and empiricism. Zeff (1985) asserts that British culture is characterized by "secrecy of process typified by a consensual approach applied in quiet, dignified setting." However, the British standard-setting process is not characterized by secrecy. It is very much a consensual approach, in fact.

III. CONCLUDING COMMENTS

While all three countries considered in this paper--the U.S., Canada, and England--follow the common law,10 the U.S. in contrast to the other two countries, has all too many detailed, rulebook standards, attempting to foresee, and provide a solution to, every accounting problem under the sun. The American standards are so detailed and legally-oriented that they resemble a tax code. Canada and Britain, on the other hand, have far fewer standards than the U.S. As Stamp observes:11

> The approach now being developed by the FASB has many of the earmarks of that used by lawyers in civil law jurisdictions [e.g., a complete written code]. Yet it might be argued that the FASB, which of course operates in a common law country, is in fact doing no more than developing definitions and rules such as are commonly thought to exist in the law of property, contract and tort in common law jurisdictions.
>
> In fact, however, there is no such codification of the common law relating to property, contract, tort, etc. throughout most of the common law countries of the world. There have been moves towards codification of parts of the common law in all of the common law jurisdictions, but except with respect to the criminal law such moves have not progressed very far because of fears of the ossification that could result.

Where standards become statute books, strict and narrow in nature, professional judgment becomes eroded. The standards in Canada and Britain are more guideline-than rulebook-oriented in contrast to U.S. standards. Furthermore, there is a great deal of emphasis on professional judgment in the standard-setting process in Britain and Canada versus the U.S. It might be asserted that Canadian accounting is an amalgam primarily of American and British influences. To the extent that Canadian accounting does not reflect American practice, the well-entrenched British influence appears to be responsible.

There is a number of differences in the American, Canadian, and British standard-setting procedures and the standards themselves, differences that are generally not surprising in light of the cultural differences among the three countries. Nonetheless, Stevenson (1968, p.7) observes that standard setting in most countries tends to be characterized by the following characteristics:

- limited financial resources;
- part-time membership of committees or boards;
- limited experienced professional staff;
- changes in committee membership and staff;

- changes in committee membership and staff;
- inadequate communication with the community; and,
- a pre-occupation with brush-fires.

Additionally, in these three countries, and this is probably true worldwide, the standards appear to lag significantly behind environmental and cultural changes. As Bromwich and Hopwood argue (1983):

> There is reason to believe that accounting standards and regulations often reflect the concerns of society with a lag. In other words, today's accounting reflects yesterday's concerns. Moreover, those concerns which ultimately impact on accounting are rarely stated in an explicit way, with the result that often the accounting policy-making process can only respond to them in a rather nebulous manner.

A lag also appears to exist in the setting of standards subsequent to socio-economic and political changes, including governmental intervention. Additionally, cultural factors may serve as constraints inhibiting changes in accounting standards, limiting innovation in setting new standards. In particular, the speed of change in the U.S. with respect to accounting standard setting and beyond seems to be considerably greater than in Canada and England, which may well be attributable at least in part to cultural factors. As Muis asserts (1977, p. 292):

> Unlike basic research in the physical sciences, the main ingredients for definition of new standards in accounting are not to be found in empirical observations of extant practices and the subsequent inference of accounting "laws": Proposals for such an exclusively inductive approach to accounting standard-setting have never been received with much enthusiasm given that standards derived from such a procedure could not possibly be geared to changing needs and evolving circumstances. Thus, accounting standards have always been influenced by value judgments, that is, by objectives which demand that standards be geared to what ought to be rather than based on what is.12

The cultural values of the U.S., Canada, and Britain are different. The U.S. is much quicker than both Canada and England to introduce technological changes, and the U.S. is less inclined to cling to traditions. Furthermore, the U.S. is less concerned with social welfare than Britain and Canada. Canada's culture may be described as an amalgam of the American and British.

Nevertheless, who is to say that the American standard-setting system ought to be applied to other countries? The different socio-political and economic environments in these countries can serve to explain differences in their standard-setting processes. This paper has attempted to analyze and evaluate the disparate standard-setting frameworks in the U.S., Canada, and England. As a caveat to our findings, Muis (1977, p. 294) maintains:

> Any cross-national comparison of different systems, which by definition are affected by numerous irrational variables such as power politics, historical evolution, lack of consensus on the foundations of the discipline and environmental differences --all powerful constraints on progress towards change for the better -- is extremely risky.

ENDNOTES

1 See R. H. Crandall, "Government Intervention -- the PIP Grant Accounting Controversy." Cost and Management, September-October 1983.

2 Chief financial executives in the U.S. today tend to be MBAs. The Chartered Accountant in Britain and Canada seems to have more prestige than the Certified Public Accountant in the U.S. in view of the tendency of the Chartered Accounting profession to prepare chief financial officers. In Canada, the Chartered Accountant's (CA) "license," if you will, is obtained by the candidate only after passing a rigorous case-oriented examination, that puts the CPA examination to shame, and having had sufficient experience working for a CA firm or the equivalent.

3 Yet Canada is much more of a welfare state than the U.S. As previously asserted, in view of its socialist traditions, Canada has developed an accounting standard dealing with government assistance and its treatment in the books of account. Britain also has a standard on this subject. The U.S. has no such comprehensive standard on this subject. The Canadian government owns a number of major corporations such as utilities and airlines. It should also be noted that the considerable influence of the government in Canada is also apparent in education. Almost all of the universities in Canada are publicly-owned. Even the Chartered Accountancy review programs offered in universities throughout Canada are invaribly funded by the government. However, Canada mimics the U.S. by and large in accounting education, emphasizing manufacturing and retailing industries contrary to Canadian economic conditions and interests. Also, almost all of Canada's professors who hold Ph.D.s in accounting or business administration received them from U.S. universities.

4 A security-minded people, Canadian professionals, including physicians, attorneys, and accountants, tend to carry heavy liability insurance, yet Canadians are much less apt to sue than Americans. The rules for initiating "class action" suits in the U.S. are considerably more flexible than in Canada. Stockholders can initiate class suits and if they prevail compensation is granted to all stockholders in the class. Attorneys are also more likely to accept such cases in the U.S. on a contingent fee arrangement, and if the cases are upheld the attorneys will generally be handsomely compensated. The contingent fee arrangement is not widely used in Canada. See the Report of the Special Committee to Examine the Role of the Auditor, CA Magazine, April 1978.

5 This analysis is drawn in part from "Review of the Standard Setting Process," Accountancy, July 1983.

6. Since 1970, accounting standards in England have become mandatory. The first mandatory standard was issued in 1971. The Accounting Standards Committee is very similar in structure, if not also in modus operandi, to its Canadian namesake and the old American Accounting Principles Board. There is no equivalent to the U.S. Securities and Exchange Commission in England or in Canada.

7 The CCAB links the following six organizations: (1) Institute of Chartered Accountants in England and Wales, (2) Institute of Chartered Accountants of Scotland, (3) Institute of Chartered Accountants in Ireland, (4) The Association of Certified Accountants, (5) The Institute of Cost and Management Accountants, (6) The Chartered Institute of Public Finance and Accountancy.

8 This research effort is similar to that undertaken by the FASB and the Canadian Institute of Chartered Accountants.

9 Unlike the FASB, the ASC uses no explicit conceptual framework. As Watts observed (1984, pp. 113-4):

> To this day we have not been able to define satisfactorily the objectives of published financial statements in the U.K. By this I mean that nobody has yet defined them in a way which is of real practical assistance in devising the detailed rules for their regulation. There are plenty of 'motherhood' statements like "The basic objective of financial statements is to provide information useful for making economic decisions" developed in the US from the axiom that the primary objective of a corporation is to maximize the cash return to its owners, but this axiom is not immediately acceptable in societies such as the UK and EEC which are not so exclusively oriented to capitalism.

10 While the province of Quebec is governed by the Napoleonic (Justinian) Code, in which emphasis is placed on written codification of law, most of Canada and the U.S. rely on uncodified common law.

11 Corporate Reporting: Its Future Evolution, CICA, 1980, p. 94.

12 Historian Barbara Tuchman, in writing about history and policy-making, observes in a more general vein (1981, p. 289):

> Policy is formed by preconceptions and by long implanted biases. When information is relayed to policy makers, they respond in terms of what is already inside their

heads and consequently make policy less to fit the facts than to fit the baggage that has accumulated since childhood.

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TABLE I

Key Differences Between American, Canadian, and British Standard Setting

	American	Canadian	British
Nature of the Standard Setting Body	FASB:	AcSC:	ASC:
	7 full-time, independent, well-paid members	An arm of CICA: unpaid volunteers	21 part-time, unpaid volunteers appointed by six consultative accountancy bodies thru which the ASC operates
	SEC oversees FASB's work	Nothing comparable to SEC. The Canada Business Corporations Act (1975) asserts that financial reports of companies incorporated under this Act must be prepared in accordance with the CICA Handbook, thus making the AcSC the standard-setting body. Additionally, various provincial securities commissions require companies that trade their securities in those provinces to adhere to CICA requirements.	Nothing comparable to the SEC. The British Companies Acts constitute a basic legal framework and incorporate EEC directives on financial reporting. Nonetheless the ASC has no official backing from an SEC-type agency.
Process of Standard Setting	Uses an external task for each project.	Uses external task forces to a limited extent.	Uses a working party, much like an external task force, but consisting of members of the consultative accountancy bodies among other interested parties.
	Emphasizes openness and due process: All meetings of FASB are open to the public.	Emphasizes secrecy: No meetings of AcSC are open to the public.	Emphasizes a set of procedures to be followed, which call for public hearings and consultation with users of financial reports and the press.
	Conducts or funds research to a significant extent (e.g., the economic consequences of standards).	Relies essentially on research of other standard setting bodies.	Research studies are carried out by the consultative accountancy bodies individually.

Continued:

TABLE I

Key Differences Between American, Canadian, and British Standard Setting

	American	Canadian	British
Process of Standard Setting	Uses a conceptual framework for guidance.	Does not use a conceptual framework.	Does not use a conceptual framework.
	Circulates discussion memorandums and exposure drafts to the public.	Circulates only exposure drafts to the public.	Circulates discussion papers, statements of intent, and exposure drafts.
	Holds public hearings on discussion memorandums.	Holds no public hearings.	Holds public hearings in accordance with the consultation plan set forth by the working party.
	Majority vote of FASB members to pass a standard.	Two-thirds vote of AcSC members to pass a standard (recommendation).	A three-quarters majority of the whole membership of the ASC is needed to release an exposure draft, a discussion paper, and the submission for approval to the council of consultative bodies. For an accounting standard to be approved, it must have the unanimous approval of the board of directors of the combined consultative committees.
	Letters of comment on discussion memorandums and exposure drafts available for public inspection after standard has been adopted.	Letters of comment only on exposure drafts available for public inspection after the standard (recommendation) has been adopted.	Not done.

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A FRAMEWORK FOR A GLOBAL HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY

BY

ALY MAASARANI, PH.D.
ST. JOHN'S UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
JAMAICA, NEW YORK 11439

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on Languages and Communication For World
Business and the Professions

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A FRAMEWORK FOR A GLOBAL HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY

ABSTRACT

Human Resource Development (HRD) is a life-long process by which individuals acquire the knowledge, skills, experience, and attitudes to manage the Multinational Corporations (MNCs) successfully. A well designed HRD's strategy should ensure MNCs with a continuous pool of well trained international leaders, provide for managerial succession at all managerial levels, and avoid managerial obsolescences.

This study presents (1) international staffing policies of American Multinational Corporations (MNCs) operating in Developing Countries (DCs), (2) identifies Environmental Constraints (special problem areas, or barriers) encountered by managers working across national and cultural boundaries in DCs, and (3) recommends strategies for development to overcome the barriers.

There are three basic policies for staffing managerial positions in DCs: a) ethnocentric policy - Parent Country Nationals (PCN), b) polycentric policy - Host Country Nationals (HCN), and c) geocentric policy - Third Country Nationals (TCN). The criteria, advantages, and disadvantages of each policy are presented.

A framework is developed to identify cross-cultural barriers. Four barriers are included: a) Language, b) Cultural, c) Environmental, and d) Economic and Managerial. The framework then shows specific strategies recommended for training and development of managers working in DCs. Finally, a set of recommendations and a statement of conclusions are included.

LENGTH OF PRESENTATION: 20-Minutes (No lecture. Mainly using transparencies as outlined in the handouts).

PRIMARY AUDIENCE : Primarily intended for Business Educators.

A FRAMEWORK FOR A GLOBAL HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY

A SUMMARY

	II. TRANSCULTURAL BARRIERS	III. OVERCOMING BARRIERS STRATEGY FOR TRAINING & DEVELOPMENT
	(A) LANGUAGE	
1.	Language diversity and inadequate knowledge of native language	Conducting "Modern Language Aptitude Test" and Language Training.
2.	Technical and commercial language	Developing Company Manual of specialized (Product/Service) vocabulary.
3.	Multiple language channels	(1) Employing expert translators. (2) Employing bilingual professionals from HCN.
4.	Host country's government officials	Delegating the communication function to HCN.
5.	Silent and nonverbal language	(1) Developing cultural sensitivity training programs (2) Reviewing research of cultural anthropologists.
6.	Informal channels	(1) Learning the spoken language and/or the language of the work environment. (2) Social contacts at work:
7.	Physical remoteness of channels and time difference	Utilizing latest communication systems and technologies (if possible).
	(B) CULTURAL	
8.	Cultural shock	(1) Improving recruitment, selection and training. (2) Conducting "Adaptability Assessment Test." (3) Cultural orientation and training.
9.	Cultural variables: Religious, educational and sociological.	(1) Cultural analysis: Self Reference Criterion (SRC). (2) Commonality Analysis.

10.	Bias and prejudices	(1) Conducting company counseling program. (2) Improving company image abroad.

(C) ENVIRONMENTAL

11.	Legal variables	Environmental orientation and training.
12.	Business laws and regulaitons	Delegating legal functions to professionals from HCN.
13.	Labor laws and restrictions (control) of expatriates' employment	(1) Working toward a unificaiton of immigration laws (for executives). (2) Job rotation of executives. (3) Short-term assignment/consulting.
14.	Political system and foreign policy	Analyzing political stability and understanding the nation's political interests. Recognizing that expatriate managers are guests in a (sovereign) foreign nation.

(D) ECONOMIC AND MANAGERIAL

15.	Economic system	(1) Understanding the nation's view and national economic goals of host country. (2) Show how to support their economic development plans.
16.	Business ideology	(1) Understanding the nation's view of private vs. public ownership. (2) Studying attitude toward profits, risk taking, wealth, and material gains.
17.	Business ethics	(1) Studying the business code of ethics and codes of conduct, which assure the right conduct by local organizaitons. (2) Special emphasis should be directed toward the issue of "questionable payments" which are illegal according to the United States laws.
18.	Application of technology	(1) Technological gap should be studied. (2) The issue of introducing to the local environment, the appropriate technology and not the latest technology should be addressed.

19.	Management science and managerial practices	First, the organized knowledge of Management Science has to be learned. (Quantitative analysis, studies...etc.). Then, the application of this knowledge (management practices) has to be adapted to the local environment (i.e. how to conduct feasibility studies with no statistical data bank).
20.	Decision making and leadership styles	(1) The degree of participation in decision making, and the subordinate's view of top management's authority has to be identified. (2) Leadership styles (i.e. autocratic vs. democratic) in the local work environment, have to be analyzed and understood. (3) Encouraging delegation of authority. (4) Developing management philosophy. Centralization/decentralization.

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BUILDING ORAL PROFICIENCY FOR MANAGERS

by

Dr. Antonia Cowles

Joseph H. Lauder Institute
of Management and International Studies
The University of Pennsylvania

Oral Proficiency for Managers

The Design in German

The video-tape you just saw is the ASP presentation (Advanced Study Project) of a graduating Lauder student in her target language. In the second year of the joint MA/MBA program, each Lauder student is required

> [...] to undertake an ASP which shows his or her competence in a Wharton disciplinary concentration (e.g., finance, marketing, management or decision sciences) and in Arts and Sciences. Generally the ASP will involve the investigation of a particular management problem in the cultural and institutional context of a particular country or region of the world, making use in part of materials in the relevant language for that geographical area. The students also will be required to give an oral presentation on their ASP in their second language [...]. [1]

This student had an ACTFL proficiency rating of Intermediate High at entry and progressed to Superior upon graduating from the Lauder Institute. The required incoming level of ACTFL-rated oral proficiency German is Advanced and in rare and special cases Intermediate High. This is the rule for all the other languages studied at the Institute with the exception of Portuguese.

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[1] "Lauder Publication", 30 September 1985.

My presentation will concern itself with the strategies and techniques with which the Intermediate High/Advanced speaker of German develops Superior oral proficiency during his/her two year tenure at the Institute. The main focus of the presentation will be on the language maintenance program during the two academic years and not on the initial summer program in Munich, FRG. Before doing so, the context of this program needs more specific definition. Since we are talking about advanced foreign language study within the non-traditional context of a combined MA/MBA program, it will be necessary first to analyze some of the aspects which distinguish the student body and teaching approach from that of a purely liberal arts program. A discussion of the needs and goals as well as the student profile at the Institute will enlighten the approach and design of our two year language and culture program.

Goals and Needs

Goals and needs of MA/MBA students at Lauder influence each other and are thus interlinked. The goals and needs of studying a foreign language for a student interested in launching a career in international business are necessarily different from one interested in pursuing an academic career in literature or from students interested in fulfilling departmental language requirements.

The general goals, as defined by the Lauder Institute are in short:

1. Superior Oral Proficiency
2. Substantial knowledge of contemporary and traditional culture of native speakers of the nine languages.
3. Understanding of management communication style and cultural sensitivity in a range of professional and social settings. [2]

The immediate goal for Lauder students in the language and culture program is to reach Superior oral proficiency which will allow them to function with the effectiveness of an educated native speaker in social situations as well as in different management situations. Therefore Superior language proficiency in this context extends to the knowledge of German business language and business culture. This includes successfully negotiating with German business partners either in this country or in German speaking ones, proposing, accepting or denying offers in German, and to be familiar with relevant economic rules, laws and customs. Beyond a solid superior language proficiency, it is of utmost importance that students develop or build upon their cultural sensitivity of the target culture. In order to become successful business leaders, it is not sufficient to speak the target language structurally and grammatically correctly, to have a broad vocabulary and to be able to read and write well.

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[2] "Language and Cultural Perspectives Program", Lauder Institute, Spring 1987

Linguistic competence, in other words, is not sufficient. While all these skills are of paramount significance, it is equally important to be truly familiar with customs - the "do-and-do-not's" - of the foreign culture and, more specifically, business culture, in order to be professionally successful and accepted by foreign partners. Thus it is communicative competence, the knowledge of social rules and appropriateness which are at the core of Lauder students' needs. The lack of language competence and cultural sensitivity of American managers doing business abroad or with foreign partners at home and the problems arising from this have been lamented widely in the past and do not need to be elaborated upon at this time. For an excellent review article on the situation for German I refer you to Marianne Inman, "Bilingualism in Business: Past, Present & Future" which appeared in the Proceedings of The Conference of the American Association of University Supervisors and Coordinators of Foreign Language Programs.[3] How cultural sensitivity is defined in the context of the successful manager, accepted by foreigners, will be explained in the section of my presentation which will focus on the actual German language and culture curriculum during the two years at Lauder. In leaving the discussion of goals and needs, let me emphasize that the definition of these goals and needs is an ongoing process, incorporating individual student's experiences during their required summer internships in Germany. Based on these empirical data we strive to achieve an accurate analysis of the linguistic and communicative needs of contemporary international managers.

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[3] Marianne Inman, "Bilingualism in Business: Past, Present & Future," Proceedings of The Conference of the American Association of University Supervisors and Coordinators of Foreign Language Programs (AAUSC) , Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, October 30 - November 1, 1985: 1-15.

Student Profile

A description of the type of student the Lauder Institute tries to recruit and which in turn is attracted by the Institute's program will be beneficial for understanding the operating scope, challenges, and some of the problems which arise in teaching such a group of individuals. Since an upper limit of 50 students for each year has been defined, language classes in the nine available target languages (Chinese, Japanese, Spanish, French, German, Portuguese, Russian, Hindi, and English for non-English speaking applicants) are optimally small. This, however, accentuates the characteristics of the student body both positively and negatively. The following observations are based on the different Lauder language classes I have been teaching in German since June, 1985. The assumption can be made, however, that these observations extend to a large degree to the totality of the class.

The diversity of the students in respect to their educational and personal backgrounds, their work experience and cultural exposure is most striking. During the last two years I taught a total of fourteen Lauder students - eight female, six male - , their average age was 27 and their work experience ranged from 1,5 - 4 years in business and business related fields. Although pursuing a career in business and enrolling in the MA/MBA program, they were not the stereo-typed business school students who are often portrayed as being too narrow minded and only focused on business regardless of humane values. The undergraduate majors of these students included linguistics, engineering, romance languages, German literature, political sciences, mathematics, history, and of course but not predominantly economics. Their work experience was mainly in the business sector, many of them had worked abroad both for foreign and U.S. firms during part of their professional lives. Thus, out of their own experience, they are acutely conscious about the importance of an internationalized business school curriculum, which would eventually produce a new generation of culturally and linguistically sensitive internationalized managers. Many students did not apply to traditional MBA programs, therefore clearly demonstrating their preference for international business. Many of them held positions with annual salaries of up to $ 44.000 prior to enrolling at the Institute. Going back to school for them meant a drastic change in life style, therefore indicating their conviction for and belief in the benefits and needs of an internationalized business degree. For all these reasons, motivation to study a foreign language at the Institute is little of a problem; it is more the heavy course load of a dual degree program which interferes with the students' wishes to spend more time in individual courses.

It is important to be aware of these students' backgrounds, because they translate into classroom behavior and expectations. The fact, that we are dealing with more mature students, comparable to graduate students, who have worked for several years - most in positions that involved a high degree of responsibility, decision making and challenges, has to be taken into consideration when designing a language program for such individuals. Classroom situations have to be challenging, interactive and to have application to past or future job/life situation in order to keep students interested.

The Academic Year

The successful completion of the eight week summer program in the target country forms the basis for the continuing program during the two academic years at Penn. Students at this point have reached Advanced Plus, in rare cases Superior, oral proficiency, provided their entry level was Advanced. The language and culture courses during the consecutive two years at the Institute strive at maintaining and further developing students communicative competence and at achieving the goals stated earlier in this talk. In the framework of this presentation, I will limit my remarks to the development of Superior oral proficiency at the Institute.

As stated above, Lauder students will use their target language predominantly orally due to the nature of their future professional needs. It is therefore crucial that their Superior oral proficiency extends strongly to the professional use of the target language. Curriculum development and classroom design has to center around these particular needs of the students.

The importance of linking languages with the professions is not new anymore. Nevertheless there are no satisfactory teaching materials in German that would fit the needs of business school students. Most materials on the market do not address the communicative and socio-cultural needs of future corporate leaders. An abundance of textbooks are available dealing with how to write business letters, resumes, inquiries, etc. However in most cases these functions will be fulfilled by support personnel of corporate leaders. On the whole materials available center on the national economy and industries of the target country; the international context of increasing global markets is usually not addressed. And it is precisely this knowledge, the integration of national and international business, which Lauder students are interested in. Many of the methods and materials employed at the Institute have therefore emerged empirically by analyzing future positions of Lauder students. Students' own suggestions and experiences during their internship in the target country in summer II at Lauder also play a vital role in the development of materials which can enhance oral proficiency.

Three key elements are used to develop students' oral proficiency:

1) guided group discussions and debates on required readings in literature, politics, national and international economy, and current social and cultural issues
2) frequent oral reports on assigned readings or special relevant topics
3) role-playing between students and between students and instructor.

The most effective and varied of these three elements has proven to be point 3) role-playing. Based upon the familiar situations and unfamiliar situations with a complication used in the ACTFL oral proficiency interview, we have developed similar situations in accordance with the needs of Lauder Students. Therefore situation cards used in our program prompt both speech about economic and socio-cultural issues. Topics may include negotiations between representatives of certain industries with union leaders in Germany, merger and acquisition negotiations, pro and cons for German banks to go international, problems around US banks entering the credit card market in Germany, discussion between American and German personnel managers about each country's different work ethic. On the socio-cultural level situation cards address the differences in informal interaction between German and American managers, i.e. how to interrupt politely, how to make toasts, what to bring if one is invited , etc.

The oral presentation skills of students are enhanced by videotaping of their performance. Subsequent constructive criticism has proven a useful tool in pointing out, defining and ultimately improving formal and informal presentations.

Conclusion

The design of the language and culture program at Lauder as well as the methods employed have prove successful. Feedback from students who have graduated already and who hold positions either in the US or in Germany has helped us improve our program and is a continuous process. Only through keeping in touch with the needs of the profession can we arrive at needs oriented language instruction. The success of the method is emphasized by the fact that students interested in working in the target country and in the target language were able to locate suitable positions.

Doris Kirchner
University of Pennsylvania

ORAL PROFICIENCY FOR MANAGERS: A DESIGN FOR PORTUGUESE

by MARIA ANTONIA COWLES

JOSEPH LAUDER INSTITUTE

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

APRIL 1987

ABSTRACT - New perspectives made evident by recent studies in second language learning and teaching have led to a change in rationale in the approach, the design as well as the procedures utilized in conceptualizing and implementing a second language program. The design of the Portuguese segment of the Joseph Lauder Institute of the University of Pennsylvania reflects the influence of the developments resulting from research on the nature of language learning and on how learner, teacher, text, and context interact for maximum results.

INTRODUCTION - The development of the concept of communicative competence as it relates to language teaching can be traced to Hymes (1971) who proposed four parameters to the systems of rules that underlie communicative behavior: 1. whether (and to what extent) something is formally possible; 2. whether (and to what extent) something is feasible; 3. whether (and to what extent) something is appropriate in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated; 4. whether (and to what extent) something is in fact done, actually performed and what its doing entails. I1971:12I. Included in his concept of competence is tacit knowledge and ability for use. Hymes was concerned with the rules of speaking, "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless." M. Canale and M. Swain (1980) proposed a theoretical framework consisting of four components of communcative competence, as follows: grammatical competence is the mastery of the linguistic code, the ability to recognize and produce lexical, morphological, syntactical, and phonological features of a language; sociolinguistic competence deals with the social rules of language use (roles of participants, the information they share, function of the interaction); discourse competence is concerned with the connection of sentences or utterances to form a meaningful whole, cohesion and coherence), and strategic competence (strategies that are used to compensate for what is not known or remembered). The four components should be included in a model of curriculum.

The new focus has guided the designer's approach to the new task in the following ways: language is both function and form, it is interactive, it is creative, it encompasees the interaction of the four components of communicative competence defined by Canale; it is learner centered where his/her needs, intellectual involvement, individual learning styles, and strategies are taken into consideration; well defined experiences in target language environment as well as with realia are most important; and use of technology to enhance or simply supply such an experience is considered crucial; the teacher plays the role of manager of the language learning experience.

THE LAUDER MODEL - With this backgoround in mind, I will use J.Richards and T. Rodgers (1986) framework to define our model.

a. Approach - Language is believed to be a creative process encompassing function and form and where learners' needs and individualities are an important concern. Language is also viewed as a vehicle of interpersonal relations and as an instrument of social exchange and interaction.

b. Design - We wish to consider the objectives of a method selection of language content, types of learning and teaching activities through needs analysis, roles of learners, teachers, and materials. Our program consists of three well defined segments: a first summer of eight weeks in the target country, a second summer of professional internship in the target country, and two academic years of language maintenance and enrichment in a non-target environment. The first step to be considered and thought to be extremely important in a totally new design was a thorough needs analysis which would identify the profile of these learners, what these learners need to do with the language once they have learned it (goal) and what the learners need to do to actually acquire the language (process). The needs assessment in this case included: a. questionnaire of students' background and language experience; b. interviews with professors teaching the MBA/MA content courses and examination of syllabi; c. class observation; d. interview with businessmen in target country; e. interview with faculty teaching business programs in target country; and f. observation of discourse and interaction in target country. The results of this investigation indicated that many of our students were multi-lingual/multi-cultural, most of them were extroverts, highly motivated, good risk takers, and goal oriented. It was also found that all had had a cognate language, mostly Spanish and that proficiency level in Portuguese was zero. Learners needed speaking, listening comprehension and reading skills more than writing. Business related discourse required special attention along with the basic language program. Students should be able to comprehend and produce business related discourse, read journals and periodicals, balance sheets, financial statements, comprehend and make notes of meetings, discussions, presentations, and effectivelly participate of discussions in the business setting. Considering that the immediate goal for language proficiency to be attained at the end of the two year program is an ACTFL 3 (Superior), we proceeded with the design of the summer program.

DESIGN OF SUMMER PROGRAM IN TARGET COUNTRY -

1. Language component - designed to meet needs indicated by entry proficiency level and proficiency in related language(s). Use of text was enriched by video-tapes, live television broadcast, language laboratory, and periodicals.

2. Transfer strategies for speakers of Spanish - this is a

cognitive segment designed to develop special strategies which will help transfer from Spanish to Portuguese. Phonological, syntactical, morphological, and lexical differences and similarities are presented. Language laboratory constitutes a supplementary tool.

3. Portuguese for specific purpose - develops communicative skills in specific domains of business, finance, and economics with special emphasis on discourse features and appropriateness specific of such contexts. This segment is heavily task based.

4. Content segment - Introduction to Brazilian culture in the form of a series of mini seminars in areas identified by the needs analysis. History and Geography of Brazil.

5. A homestay experience for the full eight weeks in the target country.

6. Special visits and interviews.

c.Procedure - The last level of conceptualization and organization within a method is what we will refer to as a procedure. This encompasses the actual day to day techniques, practices, and behaviors that operate in teaching: how activities are used (drills, dialogues, information gap activities) to present language; how particular teaching activities are used for practicing language; and procedures and tecniques used for giving feedback to learners. In defining procedures we chose to be eclectic and to keep in mind the individual differences, personality, cognitive style, motivation, proficiency in other languages, personality. Most of the material was designed to meet the variety of differences and given more or less emphasis depending on the students. For example, the lab work of the language transfer strategies was used according to cognitive style of the student; amount of overt grammar exercises depended on individual needs. The Portuguese for specific purpose segment was mostly task based, involving visits, interviews, reports, discussions and a final oral/written production. There was always an attempt to integrate all skills and to spiral sequence of form rather than keep a linear fixed sequence. Cloze exercises, role playing games, simulation exercises were interactive, authentic, purposive, and contextualized.

d. Treatment of Errors - Interlanguage is considered part of the process of language acquisition. Consequently, errors were only corrected when the session was dedicated to form (grammar).

e. Evaluation - In order to assess the route and the rate of the students' learning as well as the effectiveness of the model designed for the students, we carried out ongoing and integrative evaluations as well as an ACTFL interview at the end of the eight week summer session. The integrative tasks can be observed in the videos presented. ACTFL ratingscorrelated very well with proficiency exhibited in presentation of integrative tasks. Student performance, student evaluation of program design and teaching staff constitute the tools for continuous reevaluation of design and procedures utilized in the Lauder Model.

Conclusion - The Lauder Model is eclectic, learner centered and designed to meet the individual needs of those learners who are in fact learning a language with a "specific purpose" in mind; that of functioning effectively in the target language both in the social and the business context.

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ORAL PROFICIENCY FOR MANAGERS

A DESIGN FOR GERMAN

DORIS KIRCHNER

JOSEPH H. LAUDER INSTITUTE

OF MANAGEMENT AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

MAY 1987

This presentation will concern itself with the strategies and techniques with which the Intermediate High/Advanced speaker of German develops Superior oral proficiency during his/her two year tenure at the Institute. The main focus of the presentation will be on the language maintenance program during the two academic years. Before doing so, the context of this program needs more specific definition. Since we are talking about advanced foreign language study within the non-traditional context of a combined MA/MBA program, it will be first necessary to analyze some of the aspects which distinguish the student body and teaching approach from that of a purely liberal arts program. A discussion of the needs and goals as well as the student profile at the Institute will enlighten the approach and design of our two year language and culture program.

Goals and Needs

Goals and needs of MA/MBA students at Lauder influence each other and are thus interlinked. The goals and needs of studying a foreign language for a student interested in launching a career in international business are necessarily different from one interested in pursuing an academic career in literature or from students interested in fulfilling departmental language requirements.

The general goals, as defined by the Lauder Institute are:

1. Superior Oral Proficiency
2. Substantial knowledge of contemporary and traditional culture of native speakers of the target language.
3. Understanding of management communication style and cultural sensitivity in a range of professional and social settings. [1]

The immediate language goal for Lauder students is to reach Superior oral proficiency in order to function with the effectiveness of an educated native speaker in social as well as in different management situations. Superior proficiency in this context extends to the knowledge of German business language and business culture. This includes successfully negotiating with German business partners, proposing, accepting or denying offers in German, and to be familiar with relevant economic rules, laws and customs. Beyond this it is crucial that students develop or build upon their cultural sensitivity of the target culture. It is not sufficient to speak the target language structurally and grammatically correctly and to be able to read and write well in order to become successful business leaders. Linguistic competence, in other words, is not sufficient. While all these skills are of great significance, it is equally important to be truly familiar with customs of the foreign culture and, more specifically, business culture, in order to be professionally successful and accepted by foreign partners. Thus it is communicative competence as defined by Hymes [2], including the knowledge of social rules and appropriateness which are at the core of Lauder students' needs. The lack of language competence and cultural sensitivity of American managers engaged in business abroad or with foreign partners at home and the problems arising from this have been lamented widely in the past and do not need to be elaborated upon at this time. [3] How cultural sensitivity is defined in the context of the successful manager, accepted by foreigners, will be explained in the section of this presentation which will focus on the actual German language and culture curriculum during the two years at Lauder. In leaving the discussion of goals and needs, it should be emphasized that the definition of these goals and needs is an ongoing process, incorporating individual student's experiences during their required summer internships in Germany. Based on this, we strive to achieve an accurate analysis of the linguistic and communicative needs of contemporary international managers.

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[1] Language and Cultural Perspectives Program (Philadelphia: Lauder Institute, Spring 1987).

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[2] D. Hymes, "Competence and performance in linguistic theory," Language acquisition: models and methods, ed. R. Huxley and E. Ingram (London: Academic Press, 1971).

[3] An excellent review article on this situation is: Marianne Inman, "Bilingualism in Business: Past, Present & Future," Proceedings of The Conference of the American Association of University Supervisors and Coordinators of Foreign Language Programs (AAUSC) (Columbus: Ohio State University, October 30 - November 1, 1985) 1-15.

Student Profile

A description of the type of student the Lauder Institute tries to recruit and which in turn is attracted by the Institute's program will be beneficial for understanding the operating scope, challenges, and some of the problems which arise in teaching such a group of individuals. Since an upper limit of 50 students for each year has been defined, language classes in the nine available target languages (Chinese, Japanese, Spanish, French, German, Portuguese, Russian, Hindi, and English for non-English speaking applicants) are optimally small from an instructional point of view. This, however, accentuates the characteristics of the student body both positively and negatively. The following observations are based on the different Lauder language classes in German since June, 1985.

The diversity of the students in respect to their educational and personal backgrounds, their work experience and cultural exposure is most striking. During the last two years, a total of fourteen Lauder students had chosen German. Their average age was 27 and their work experience ranged from 1,5 - 4 years in business and business related fields. Although pursuing a career in business and enrolled in the MA/MBA program, they were unusually broad minded in their pursuit of knowledge. Their undergraduate majors included linguistics, engineering, Romance languages, German literature, political sciences, mathematics, history, and economics. Their work experience was predominantly in the business sector, many of them had worked abroad both for foreign and U.S. firms during part of their professional lives. Thus, out of their own experience, they are acutely conscious about the importance of an internationalized business school curriculum, which would eventually produce a new generation of culturally and linguistically sensitive internationalized managers. Many students did not apply to traditional MBA programs, therefore clearly demonstrating their preference for international business. Many of them held positions with high annual salaries prior to enrolling at the Institute. Going back to school for them meant a drastic change in life style, therefore again demonstrating a conviction for and belief in the benefits and needs of an internationalized business degree. For all these reasons, motivation to study a foreign language at the Institute is not a problem. It is more the heavy course load of a dual degree program which interferes with the students' desire to spend more time on individual course work.

It is important to be aware of these students' backgrounds, because they translate into classroom behavior and expectations. The fact, that we are dealing with more mature graduate students, who have worked for several years - most in positions that involved a high degree of responsibility, decision making and challenges, has to be taken into consideration when designing a language program for such individuals. Classroom situations have to be challenging, interactive and to have application to past or future job/life situations.

The Academic Year

The successful completion of the eight week summer program in the target country forms the basis for the continuing program during the two academic years at Penn. Students at this point have reached Advanced Plus, in rare cases Superior, oral proficiency, provided their entry level was Advanced. The language and culture program during the consecutive two years at the Institute strives to maintain and further develop students communicative competence and to achieve the earlier stated goals.

Lauder students concentrate predominantly on oral proficiency in their target language. Due to the nature of their future professional needs, it is crucial that their Superior oral proficiency extends strongly to the professional use of the target language. Curriculum development and classroom design has to center around these particular needs of the students.

The importance of linking languages with the professions is no longer a novel idea. Nevertheless there are no satisfactory teaching materials in German that would fit the required needs of business school students. Most materials on the market do not adequately address the communicative and socio-cultural needs of future international corporate leaders. An abundance of teaching materials are available on how to write business letters, resumes, inquiries. However in most cases these functions will be fulfilled by support personnel of corporate leaders. On the whole, available materials center on the national economy and industries of the target country; the international context of increasing global markets is usually not addressed. And it is precisely this knowledge, the integration of national and international business, which is of interest to Lauder students. Many of the methods and materials employed at the Institute have therefore emerged empirically by analyzing future positions of Lauder students. Students' own suggestions and experiences during their internship in the target country in summer II at Lauder also play a vital role in the development of materials which can enhance oral proficiency. The approach in syllabus design could be described as "notional-functional".[4] The underlying principles of a notional-functional syllabus design are the following according to Szymanski:[5]

1. The syllabus stresses those uses of language essential to the individual's communicative needs
2. Objectives for each unit specify both the content and the appropriate socio-cultural circumstances of the verbal behavior
3. Consideration is given to utilizing students' knowledge of their native language in the learning process and to activating students awareness of language use within specified situations prior to insistence on correct performance

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[4] D.A. Wilkins, Notional Syllabus (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1976) 88.

[5] Jeanette R. Szymanski, "Curricular Trends in Modern Language Communication," Practical Applications of Research in Foreign Language Teaching ed. Charles J. James (Lincolnwood: National Textbook Company, 1985) 74-75.

4. What is not stressed is absolute mastery of linguistic terms, but rather the development of communication [...].

A curriculum based on this design assures a realistic goal oriented content as the materials chosen will reflect the future communicative needs of the individuals concerned.

Among the techniques, which elicit oral response, the following three are key elements at the Lauder Institute:

1) guided group discussions and debates on required readings in literature, politics, national and international economies, and current social and cultural issues
2) frequent oral reports on assigned readings or special relevant topics
3) role-playing between students and between students and instructor.

The most effective and varied of these three elements has proven to be point 3) role-playing. Based upon the familiar situations and unfamiliar situations with a complication used in the ACTFL oral proficiency interview, we have developed similar situations in accordance with the needs of Lauder Students. Therefore situation cards used in our program prompt both speech about economic and socio-cultural issues. Topics may include negotiations between representatives of certain industries with union leaders in Germany, merger and acquisition negotiations, pro and cons for internationalization of German banks, problems surrounding US banks marketing US credit cards in Germany, discussion between American and German personnel managers about each country's different work ethic. On the socio-cultural level situation cards address the differences in informal interaction between German and American managers, i.e. how to interrupt politely, how to make toasts, what to bring if one is invited.

The oral presentation skills of students are enhanced by videotaping of their performance. Subsequent constructive criticism has proven a useful tool in delineating weaknesses and in ultimately improving formal and informal presentations.

Conclusion

The design of the language and culture program at Lauder as well as the methods employed have proven successful. Feedback from students who have graduated already and who hold positions either in the US or in Germany has helped us improve our program and is a continuous process. Only through keeping in touch with the needs of the profession can we arrive at needs oriented language instruction. The success of the method is emphasized by the fact that students interested in working in the target country and in the target language were able to obtain suitable positions.

THE LANGUAGE OF NEGOTIATION STRATEGY

by

Mirjaliisa Lampi
School of Economics and Business Administration
Helsinki, Finland

[illegible] ANNUAL CONFERENCE ON

LANGUAGES AND COMMUNICATION FOR WORLD BUSINESS AND THE
PROFESSIONS
EASTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY
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THE LANGUAGE OF NEGOTIATION STRATEGY

by

Mirjaliisa Lampi
School of Economics and Business Administration
Helsinki, Finland

I Introduction

There was once a novice in a convent. She had the bad habit of smoking. She suffered when she couldn't smoke, and the long prayers, in particular, were difficult times for her. Finally she couldn't bear the sessions any longer, so she went to Mother Superior and asked her for permission to smoke. She said,"Mother Superior, can I smoke when I pray?" She didn't get the permission.

There was another novice in a different convent,who had the same problem. She also wanted permission to smoke. But she said,"Mother Superior, can I pray when I smoke?" Permission was granted.

That was strategy.

What can we, as linguists and language educators learn from this story? The two requests contained exactly the same lexical items and the same grammatical structures; yet, one was effective communication, producing the desired result, the other one was not. Exactly the same amount of effort from the language teacher and the learner would have been required to formally teach and learn both requests. Why not best spend our time teaching the effective one?

This is why I have been studying negotiation strategy: to be able to teach my business English students the kind of language which will enable them to conduct effective negotiations in English. The aim of this study is to produce a linguistic model for the description of strategy in linguistic terms. The model is presented in the form of a group of variables with which strategy can be created and manipulated.

II Data and Methodology

The study is based on audio-recordings of business negotiations carried out in British subsidiaries of Finnish companies. The detailed analysis concentrates on one 40-minute negotiation between two Brits, ie. native speakers of English. The recording was made by the Seller, who was the UK representative of a Finnish company, with the permission of his opposite party, who was the representative of an important wholesale customer. No outsider, not even the researcher, was present. The recording was then transcribed.

As a preliminary step, the recording and the transcription were studied by two negotiation skills experts. Both characterized the negotiation as 'distributive'/'cooperative'/'collaborative'. (For a description of the various negotiation strategies see Johnston 1982; Fisher and Ury 1981)

Then, the negotiation event was divided into macrostructural phases (see separate sheet/conference transparency).

The basic macrostructural dichotomy is that of gathering and encounter (see Golopentia-Eretescu 1974). A gathering refers to a phase in a negotiation, where the degree of organization and cooperation between the participants, as well as situational preplanning, are minimal, even perhaps nil. In short, gatherings are phases which, in a transcription, would be classified as 'inaudible, many voices speaking together.' They are unorganized, chaotic discourse, whereas encounters represent organized interaction, which renders itself to transciption conventions.

In studies of conversations, gathering phases are often excluded from the analysis, although they are an integral part of most conversations. I did NOT ignore them; I focused my attention on the utterances immediately preceding a gathering, as well as the utterances with which organized discourse was resumed. I discovered that a gathering was utilized to grab the floor. Unorganized discourse was switched back into organized form with an utterance which was either heavily laden with new (and weighty) information on the actual negotiation issues, or an utterance that was linguistically marked with prosody plus words like 'So...', 'Well then ...', 'Well, look ...'; also address and meta-statements were used to grab attention. The ability to create a gathering, and then to emerge from it as flooholder, would therefore seem to be a tactical communication skill, very useful in a negotiation.

An *encounter* was divided into three phases: 1)*the chat phase*, the main function of which is to provide for the existence of interaction-oriented sociability (see Rubin & Brown 1975; Bales 1953). A chat phase is defined as two people talking meaningfully *to* and *with* each other in such a way that both are interested in sustaining the state of talk and cooperate to keep it going. (2) *the discussion phase*, where the negotiators talk *to* and *with* each other *about* some particular thing. It is a topic-oriented process, the aim of which is the elicitation and exchange of information, though not reaching a solution. (3) *the bargaining phase*, where the negotiators talk *to* and *with* each other, *about* some particular thing, *in order to* make a decision or to reach agreement. There is strong emphasis on result and agreement: polarity and controversy are built-in expectations. A summary of the characteristics of the various macrophases is given on a separate sheet /conference transparency.

On the microlevel of analysis, the non-linguistic research done on negotiations by Putnam & Jones (1982) was combined with the act categories of Sinclair & Coulthard (1975), as well as the conversation analysis of Jefferson (1972). Ideas that were distilled from this were merged with findings from psychological, sociological, and business managerial negotiation studies (see eg. Raiffa 1982; Danziger 1976; Gendron 1984; Pruitt 1981).

All this allowed me to identify which structural components were more relevant than others for strategy creation. Of course, there had to be some regrouping and redefinition. It is this process of developing the conceptual framework that takes up the bulk of the study.

III Findings

A combination of the macro- and microlevels of analysis provides a group of linguistic variables through which, I suggest, negotiation strategy is created and manipulated.

As to the smallest level of analysis, three main types of acts were identified, which are obviously important for strategy creation: a) acts which create negotiation strategy by contributing to the negotiation climate: mitigation, emphasis, address; this category also includes acts which, following Putnam & Jones (1982) are referred to as positive affect or negative affect. (b) topic-oriented acts, which contribute to the creation of strategy through their sequential organization and the clusters which they are perceived to form. These include what Putnam & Jones (1982) refer to as self-support acts and other-support acts, and are particularly useful in describing argumentation.
c) silent acts, which reveal - and this is daunting for the overseas learner of English - that, in a negotiation, there is no way of NOT producing a communicative act or a move: refraining from the production of a verbalized / vocalized move will merely result in the production of a

silent act, which, in the negotiation context, is taken to be a deliberate, strategic move.

The macrostructural phases proved interesting, and differences between them could be identified on all the levels analysed - acts, moves, exchanges, and cycles. For example, it was discovered that in the chat phases there were no silent acts; in discussion phases there were quite a few, and even more in bargaining phases. This suggests that interactive cooperation takes the form of swift turn-taking in chats, and, in discussion and bargaining phases, slower turn-taking - with silence even within a turn, allowing the interactant to work out what he wants to say without hurrying in and possibly grabbing the floor.

Differences between the phases could also be identified in length of utterances, as well as the type of individual topic-oriented acts used. More study is, however, required.

Finally - and this concerns specifically a cooperative strategy - the study suggests that the following variables make a significant contribution:

a) lack of threats, demands, and negative affect acts;
b) persuasive behaviour in the form of statistical, example, analogy or causal self-support argumentation, combined with other-support acts and positive affect acts;
c) chat phases interspersed among topic-oriented phases;
d) the predominance of discussion phases over bargaining phases, ie. a tendency to convert a conflict into a situation where (controversial) information is exchanged and elicited.
e) floor-sharing, involving frequent floor-changes;
f) in topic development, alternation of preferred items, ie. good news, and dispreferred items, ie. bad news.

The above is merely a list of immediately emergent variables. Again, more detailed research is required, on more extensive data, especially on the problem of floor-holding and floor-grabbing, which are essential skills for a negotiator.

IV Practical Applications

The findings and the conceptual framework presented above were used to produce two advanced level language courses: one for business executives and one for undergraduate MBA students.

The business executives' course was made for the Finnish Institute of Marketing. It consists of written material, three cassettes, and a two-day seminar. Part A of each unit gives the negotiation skills input - the theory of negotiating. Part B of every unit contains examples of useful phrases for the various phases of a negotiation, together with a Finnish commentary on the appropriate degree of formality/informality, friendliness/aggressiveness, politeness, firmness etc. Concepts like mitigation, self- or other-support, positive / negative affect are not necessarily mentioned by name, but the language involved is taught. Part C provides revision of key structures for those who need it. Grammatical structures are organized according to their relevance for negotiation strategy. In practicing (cooperative) argumentation the student is, for example, reminded of the various structures available for expressing cause, reason, and consequence. When he learns about the tactical use of mitigation, the student will review structures for varying degrees of compulsion and obligation, expressing uncertainty, suggesting, recommending - instead of commanding and ordering.

In this way, the language the student is already familiar with falls into place, and gains strategic significance.

During the two-day seminar, the students go through a basic negotiation, stage by stage, practising the language they have studied, and observing the effects on themselves and others of the language. The culmination is a major two-stage negotiation event, roughly three hours from beginning to end, with two rival teams trying to get a business contract. This is video'd, with feedback and discussion.

The course for the undergraduate MBA students follows roughly the same pattern. Interestingly, their youthfulness seems to make them much more competitive and far less cooperative than the business executives.

It is explained to both groups of students that the aim of this particular language course is not so much to teach them any new language items, but to use to the full the potential offerd by the language they already know, to help them become aware of its strategic significance in negotiation interaction. A lot of attention is also paid to cross-cultural aspects of negotiations.This is of particular importance for Finland, which is a small country in the northeastern corner of Europe, geographically and linguistically separated from the rest of the world. For Finnish businesses, the English language opens the door to international operations.

The feedback received from these two pilot courses has been very encouraging. Course members commented that it was a challenge, and that it taught them to look at communication from a new angle, that the English they knew gained significance ...

What it taught me, the language teacher, was that students can cope with far more sophisticated tasks than we sometimes give them credit for. On the other hand, what the research process revealed was that a negotiation event cannot be taken as one homogenous activity. It must be broken up into its constituents, and the language of the various phases and their different features studied separately. Students appreciate this, and, at the end of the course, they, too, realize that a negotiation is a subtle complex of differentiated discoursal elements which need delicate tactical manipulation.

The reward for impressing this on a group of students is allround satisfaction, enthusiasm, and high motivation.

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DISCOURSE STRATEGIES FOR FOREIGN MBA STUDENTS: A SOCIOLINGUISTIC DESCRIPTION OF THE CASE DISCUSSION

by

Kristine Billmyer and Cheri Micheau
University of Pennsylvania

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Introduction

As English teachers of foreign graduate students at the Lauder Institute of Management and International Studies, we have over the past four years sought to improve the design of the English language curriculum in an effort to make course content and methods as relevant as possible to the current academic and future professional needs of our students To inform this effort we conducted a classroom-centered research project which is the subject of this paper The focus of the research project is the well-known case method of analyzing and solving simulated business problems in graduate business schools In particular we were interested in the in-class discussion of the case and the requirements for oral participation by students in case courses

We chose the case discussion for several reasons First, we felt it deserved attention because of its ubiquity The case method is one of the most frequent formats of information presentation and discussion found in graduate business schools Second unlike lecture-style classes, case courses require participation from all students on a regular basis Student participation is usually graded and can form anywhere from 10% to 50% of the student's grade And finally because of its nature the case discussion provides a unique opportunity for students while still in graduate school to practice the skills they will need as future managers and decision makers These include teasing out relevant facts of a problem analyzing and synthesizing information from many sources challenging and defending assertions and negotiating decisions In their roles as corporate leaders they will also need to cooperatively build a solution to a problem with a group of peers and superiors while still maintaining their own agenda

Our specific purposes for studying the case discussion were threefold first to identify the rules which govern the verbal, non-verbal, and cognitive behaviors exhibited by members of the case class and to make explicit those characteristics which combine to give the case discussion its identity as a unique speech event second to build a descriptive model of the communicative competence of successful participants in case discussions in terms of various linguistic, sociolinguistic and extralinguistic variables and third, to use our analysis as a point of departure in planning the curriculum for a preparatory course for our foreign students at the Lauder Institute

The study is set both theoretically and methodologically within the framework of the ethnography of communication as conceptualized by Hymes (1966 [1972]) and adapted for classroom studies by Mehan (1984) The basic concept of Hymes theory is the notion of communicative competence, which includes both the innate knowledge of the norms of language use within the speech community and features of performance--knowing when to speak, when not to, what to talk about with whom when where and in what manner To uncover these tacit rules of speaking and previously unnoticed norms for classroom behavior, we used an ethnographic method as set out by Mehan (1984) Through ethnography it is possible to generate a sociolinguistic description which a) identifies the rules of speaking which underlie the systematicity in language use in various phases of the case discussion and b) enumerates what students need to know to be successful participants in their classroom community

Method

To collect data for this investigation we observed seven case discussions and later interviewed students and professors at the Wharton School of Business Five different professors were observed in the following courses Business Policy Marketing Management Marketing Research and Strategic Planning and Control The number of students in each class ranged from approximately 40 to 60 students Two of the seven classes were videotaped all were audiotaped During each class one or both reasearchers were present as non-participant observers taking notes on the interaction the setting the format of the case discussion and other details about the professor s style and students' behavior Later addditional information was obtained through informal interviews with each of the professors and several randomly selected students (both native and non-native speakers of English) in each of the classes The interviews gave us further insight into such topics as teacher expectations the value placed on participation in the case class the purpose of the case analysis and preferred styles of interaction in the case discussion These interviews also helped us to confirm or disconfirm our own interpretations of the data

Analysis of the field notes and the video- and audiotapes of each of the case discussions along with information from the interviews helped us to identify relevant categories and generate a framework for understanding the rules of speaking which operate in the discussion of a case After relevant segments of the tapes were identified we transcribed them for more detailed analysis

Findings

The results of this study will be described in the following way First we will point out the defining characteristics of the case discussion in other words those features which appeared consistently in the cases we observed and which give the case discussion its unique identity as a particular speech event Second, we will try to describe those features of student behavior thought by both American students and professors to be highly desirable for competent membership in the Wharton Business School speech community Finally we will list five areas in which the professor s individual style and personality cause variation in both format of the case discussion and teacher expectations for the students

A. The case discussion as a speech event

The speech event under study the case discussion, can be defined as a teacher-directed student-centered classroom activity, based on a prepared written case and aimed at cooperatively reaching a solution to the problem outlined in the case Several features distinguish the case discussion as a particular kind of speech event These include major structural components regulation and pace of participation the sequencing of discourse, and patterns of turn taking

In terms of overall structure and organization, there appear to be three identifiable macro-components of the case discussion The first takes place outside of the classroom that is the assigned reading and sometimes written analysis of a formal case study prior to the class discussion In the classroom, two other components were identified The most prominent is the lengthy teacher-led series of questions and answers which both test the students' understanding of the problem and their ability to bring theory and information from other sources to bear on finding a solution to the problem This component is usually subdivided into the summary of case facts and then the analysis and normally accounts for two-thirds to three-fourths of the time spent in the case discussion The other identifiable segment of the case is the lecture segment placed either at the beginning or the end of the class During this segment the professor relates the findings of the case to theory and other issues discusses the feasibility of solutions proposed by students during the discussion and teaches important terminology The length and position of the lecture component of the case classes we observed varied from professor to professor, for example, two of the professors lectured at the end, one at the beginning, and one interspersed mini-lectures throughout the case discussion, Nonetheless, the lecture was a regular feature of all case discussions

In terms of the regulation of participation, the case discussion is primarily a teacher-directed though not necessarily teacher-centered activity As such it is the teacher who initiates most of the topics through a series of general and follow-up questions which probe the students understanding of the case Students have some control over the regulation of turn taking in the sense that while the professor is asking a question they bid for a turn to reply by raising their hands While pre-emptive self-selection also occurs in every case discussion it constitutes the minority of instances of turn taking Competitive bidding was observed in most of the classses leading us to characterize the case discussion as one of high involvement and high participation through an orderly exchange of turns regulated by the professor The timing and pace of the exchange in the cases we observed seemed to vary as a function of the complexity of the case In relatively straightforward cases students did not even wait for the professor to finish formulating his question before they began bidding In such cases there was practically no wait-time between the question and the reply allowing for a great many exchanges to take place in a 90-minute class In more technical complex cases the professor often reformulated his question several times before he was able to elicit a reply This slowed the pace down considerably

Generalizing from the cases we observed the discourse sequences included several typical elements in this order topic initiation through a question asked by the teacher non-verbal bidding by several students teacher nomination of a student to reply and a follow-up question asked by the teacher Variations in this sequence included chaining replies that is several student bids nominations and subsequent replies to a single question posed by the teacher The sequence was frequently terminated by the teacher giving a summary of the prior discourse and then framing the next topic Example 1 illustrates this typical chaining sequence

Example 1

T phrases a general question
Ss bid (non-verbal hand raising)
T nominates (non-verbally---pointing to S)
S_1 responds
T asks follow-up question
S_1 replies
Ss bid (non-verbally)
T nominates S_2
S_2 replies
T comments (paraphrase)
Ss bid
T nominates
S_3 comments
T asks what the implications are
Same sequence repeated with other students
T summarizes and frames next topic

In the above sequence the students are responding primarily to the teacher but at the same time have incorporated information and comments from other students into their own responses In this way the sequence while it is teacher-directed is not necessarily teacher-centered

Another typical sequence we observed was classified as student-centered and minimally teacher-directed In this example the teachers engaged students in discussion with each other Two different teachers accomplished this each using a completely different technique One professor employed role-play and asked various students to take the parts of key figures in the case in order to bring out the issues under consideration The other professor set up debates between students initially asking one student to comment on the opinion of a student who had just spoken and later simply serving as a moderator, parsing out turns through non-verbal signals This sequence is illustrated in Example 2

Example 2

S_1 Gives opinion

T (looking at S_2) Do you buy that Julie?

S_2 comments (disagrees)

T (points to S_1)

S_1 replies (gives justification)

T (points to S_2)

S_2 responds again

etc

B Skills necessary for successful participation

The skills which will be described next are those which are highly valued by both students and faculty of the Wharton School and considered essential for successful participation in the case discussion They include linguistic extralinguistic and cognitive skills

1 **Preparation of the case** All of the Wharton professors observed and interviewed cited thorough preparation of the case before the discussion as one of the most important criteria for success in the case course Basically three types of preparation are necessary The first is to be fully in control of the facts of the case This attention to both main idea and detail is essential as factual recall questions are frequently asked throughout the discussion The second type of preparation is to analyze the facts and synthesize information not only from the case but also from other experience and theory Again this should be done prior to the case discussion In addition students need to have formulated several possible analyses of the problem not just one so that if one analysis is not selected during the discussion students will have the flexibility to adapt their analyses

2 **Clarity and conciseness of language** All professors stressed the need for conciseness and lack of ambiguity since these qualities are essential for the students' future roles as managers The desirability of these language skills was frequently reflected in the professors questions which were aimed at getting the students to clarify their utterances and rephrase their comments In the following exchange the professor is trying to encourage the student to replace the incorrectly used word pricing and select a more precise term

Example 3

S then they might start to do a little bit of *pricing* But I don't think the
T //but
S //most neophytes
T //they're going to do a little bit of what?
S They're going to do a little they're going to do a little more *research*

Often the professors themselves modeled the appropriate phrasing or attempted to overtly introduce terminology which they felt was needed for the more precise expression of meaning

3 **Ability to respond appropriately to a variety of questions and directives** The questions and directives used by the professors serve a variety of functions and require that students report factual information as well as defend

assertions explain justify give a rationale challenge or support others' statements and rephrase and clarify their own The ability to do this successfully derives both from prior preparation of the case as well as from attentive listening to and critical assessment of the professor's and other students comments as the case discussion unfolds The particular techniques used by most of the professors in each case discussion we observed made it quite obvious to both the naive observer as well as the informed participant that students were responsible for defending each assertion they made Frequently, professors would ask several follow-up questions of a student, just to make sure that he or she had his/her facts assembled and could defend the particular position against new information One professor we observed made regular use of a rather extreme form of this format, which we labeled the "hot seat" In the following example the professor grills a student about some case facts

Example 4

T Where's the "r" come from, this retention factor?

S It came from NASA, from something

T (incredulously) **NASA** said it's 8?

S I have no idea quite what it was it came from, but it (the case) said it came from NASA

T (jokingly) It came from **NASA**? I can't believe you believe that? (laughs with rest of class) I can't believe you believe that

S With the NASA ads

T Oh, with the NASA ads But why'd they come up with the number 8?

S Frankly, I've got no idea I assume it's from creative studies that they had seen done to see one period later how many people had remembered those ads

While this particular style was certainly the most aggressive we observed other professors employed similar though more moderate forms of interrogation

4 **Understanding and abiding by the rules of turn taking** As stated previously the case disucssion consists largely of a teacher-directed question and answer format in which the teacher usually nominates students to speak At the same time students are graded on the quality and quantity of their oral participation In such a setting understanding the intricate rules for turn taking and getting and holding the floor is essential

Students aware of the norms of speaking in the case discussion use three primary techniques for getting turns to speak The most frequent method is bidding (raising the hand) and waiting for the professor to nominate a student either by non-verbal gesture or calling by name Successful bidding techniques include bidding while the teacher is completing the last few words of his question or giving pre-bidding signals such as leaning forward or trying to catch the professor s attention through eye contact Less frequently individual students self-select or the entire group replies in unison without any formal bidding procedure In general. students have a certain amount of control in deciding whether or not to participate in the interaction In one class we observed however the professor used a coercive nominating technique which we refer to as cold-calling This left students vulnerable to being called upon to perform at almost any given moment regardless of their degree of preparedness to handle the question It is also of interest to discover that on rare occasions student-student interaction--unsolicited by the professor--is also acceptable

Since the case discussion is a high-involvement activity in which ideally as many students as possible should have the opportunity to participate. limiting the length of the student s turn also seemed an important feature In large classes it seems to be the norm that successful students limit the length of their turns by being concise. avoiding repetition of others comments. and staying strictly on topic

In terms of the particular difficulties foreign students have in the area of turn taking we found in an earlier study that foreign students have problems in utilizing appropriate bidding techniques and understanding the rules of timing their utterances in order to avoid interrupting others In addition. they frequently fail to respond quickly enough to nominations insert inappropriately long intrasentential pauses or take inappropriately long turns

5 **Cooperative solution building** All of the professors stressed that case analysis is an exercise in using the opinions of various members of the group to reach a desirable solution to a business problem It is important to note that there are various possible solutions to each problem Skills required for this critical area of the case discussion include listening critically to others being able to incorporate others ideas into one s own analysis and conversely. taking parts of one s analysis and fitting it into the general solution Linking one s statements to other speakers through smooth transitions or specific references to previous statements is also desirable Finally even the most masterful analysis prepared by an individual

student may have to be abandoned in favor of another path chosen by the group The successful participant must be able to recognize if and or how well his analysis fits the general trend if it does not he must exhibit flexibility in thinking on his feet and bringing his comments in line with the solution to the problem chosen by the group

C. Variations in professors' styles

Having observed five different professors in action it seems that teacher personality and individual style can be important factors in determining the approach taken to the case discussion Making students aware of possible areas of variation could help to facilitate the process of understanding expectations and fitting appropriate behavior to the situation whatever it may be The major areas of variation are

First the professor's method of allocating turns--ranging from nominating students who bid to cold-calling, and differing in the degree to which student-student interaction is encouraged

Second the amount of pressure the professor puts on students to prepare beforehand and perform once in class and the degree to which the atmosphere is one of testing as opposed to informal discussion

Third the teacher's approach which can range from traditional question-answer sequences interspersed with lecurettes to story-telling or role-playing

Fourth the amount of emphasis placed by the teacher on class participation and the degree to which it actually plays a role in the final grade

Fifth The quality of students' contributions, whether students are expected to draw more heavily upon theory and facts of the case or are allowed to speculate or rely on their own opinion

Application of Research Findings for Curriculum Design

This description of the case discussion as a speech event along with the identification of skills and abilities needed for successful participation will serve as a very useful resource in designing a unit of study for the coming summer program Several possible areas of emphasis are being considered for inclusion in the course They are

1. critical reading of the case in order to isolate important facts and to relate them to broader implications.
2. exercises to give students practice in summarizing giving a concise synthesis of problems and possible solutions
3. clarification exercises which develop precision and specificity in language use
4. regular attention to vocabulary development and use of terminology found in the cases themselves
5. practice in bidding for and holding the floor turn taking and timing of utterances
6. "hot-seat" activities which require students to justify their responses through multiple follow-up questions posed by fellow students and the teacher
7. the analysis of teachers' styles and patterns of student participation using videotaped case discussions.
8. activities which target receptive skills such as recognizing cues professors use to indicate how when, and in what detail to answer a question
9. activities which target language-specific skills such as gambits for expressing opinion agreeing disagreeing and criticizing diplomatically

Where the development of linguistic competence in preparation for graduate business studies was once the main focus we have now expanded our program with the knowledge gained from this research to include an additional focus on norms of speaking and patterns of interaction appropriate for the case discussion

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RECEPTIVE/PRODUCTIVE SKILL DEVELOPMENT USING CASE STUDIES AND A VIDEO METHOD

Kay Westerfield

American English Institute

University of Oregon

The case study method is an integral part of business programs in the United States and Great Britain. In this method, students analyze cases of actual business situations and gain hands-on experience discussing complex business issues in a relatively risk-free environment.

Recognizing the importance of case studies in business programs and their potential usefulness as language learning tools, ESP and EAP instructors have begun to include cases in their courses, using them primarily to help improve composition skills through written analyses. However, this type of training, while of great benefit, does not accurately reflect the linguistic demands of MBA programs. In addition to written analyses of cases, MBA professors require active participation in class and small group discussions. Through these discussions, MBA students examine the relationship between their personal values and beliefs and business issues and practice effective oral expression, a skill crucial for successful business. This oral skill requirement, which often determines up to 25% of a student's course grade, should not be overlooked in ESP courses.

In this paper, I describe the design of an ESP case study course aimed at improving both written and oral skills. A central part of the course is a video method which helps to develop fluency in small-group discussions. Although this course was originally designed for students interested in business, the materials and particularly the video-based technique can be easily adapted for EAP or general ESL courses as well.

Selection of Cases

There are case studies from many business areas to choose, for example: management, marketing, consumer behavior, and accounting. Thus, it is important to consider several points when selecting cases. First, what area or areas of business are most relevant for the students in the course? Depending upon student interest, cases from several areas can be used; for example, those in management and marketing seem to be particularly popular with students and are not as heavily laden with numbers as are cases in accounting.

A second consideration of great importance to ESP instructors without an extensive business background is the availability of teacher notes. Most case books come with accompanying teacher manuals, and those that do not may include a few focus questions at the end of each case to serve as a guide.

Another factor to consider when choosing cases is the type of case as there are 3 major types. One is a case study of a situation in which the management is facing a problem when no decision has yet been made and the student is asked to suggest a solution. The second type describes an action that has already been taken, requiring an evaluation on the part of the reader. The third requires general appraisal, in which students are asked to analyze the structure of an organization to determine whether everything is proceeding as it should. Cases of the first type, in which students are asked to state the problem and consider alternate courses of action, are particularly effective in stimulating discussion as students try to agree upon the most viable alternatives.

Another consideration in choosing cases is whether they deal with national or international issues. Either type may be of great interest to students. The book, Consumer Behavior, includes some stimulating domestic cases, including "Which Coke is it?", a case which deals with Coca-Cola's marketing blunder (or was it coup?) of the century. Several of the other texts (Appendix A) delve into international issues. The book International Marketing Management, for example, includes the Connecticut Corporation case which deals with an American company's intercultural marketing dilemma as to whether to pull out of the vodka market in Japan when faced with stiff domestic competition or to go after it "tooth and nail."

Another, and probably the most important, consideration when selecting cases for ESL students is length, that is, the shorter the better. Many ESP instructors use cases primarily from Harvard Business School since they are well known. In general, however, Harvard cases tend to be long, averaging around 20 pages. Many cases of a more reasonable length for ESL students (one to eight pages) are available from other sources (Appendix A).

The Business School Approach

Having selected appropriate cases, the ESP instructor must then decide whether to adapt the cases, for example, by shortening or rewriting them, or to leave them untouched. The latter approach seems more appropriate with upper-level ESP students soon to be entering undergraduate or graduate business programs. Such students need exposure to authentic language and procedures common in business schools. To take a "language teaching approach" and simplify the cases at this point would be somewhat misleading and certainly not as appealing to advanced students desiring "real" course content.

In business schools, as in "real-life" business, students receive a mass of information that they must sift through, deciding for themselves which points are relevant or irrelevant. Students are asked to scrutinize the facts and decide for themselves what the various options are. There is little, if any, guidance since it is the ability to organize and analyze that the business programs are trying to teach. This experience will give students the skills to assume responsible positions in the business world, where the person with the analytical mind is highly valued.

Business professors do, however, often provide their students with a few guidelines for reading and analyzing cases. These are of great help to international students who may be unaccustomed to the less than straightforward manner in which case studies present information.

To approach a case, the first suggestion business professors offer is to look at the title, headings, graphs, and illustrations to determine the topic and general organization of the case, common pre-reading activities. Then, students are directed to read the case through once quickly, underlining key words and ideas. After that, they can go back and read the case more thoroughly, mastering facts and details, and only then write out their individual, in-depth analysis of the case. Before coming to class, students are encouraged to discuss their interpretation with several other students and make revisions if necessary. This outside-of-class, small-group discussion is important preparation for presenting their opinions in an in-class discussion of the case.

The actual analysis of the case involves a series of steps. By considering each of these steps separately, one is guided through the analysis process from identifying the problem to envisioning viable solutions. Although there seems to be some disagreement on the exact number of steps involved, the content of the basic analysis process is fairly consistent among all sources.

The first step is to state the problem(s). Determing the critical issue raised in the case usually requires going beneath the surface to separate symptoms from the actual problem. For example, it is not accurate to state that low sales volume is the problem in a case when low sales volume is only a symptom of an underlying problem which may be poor supervision by sales managers, an inefficient distribution network, a poor incentive program, or something else. Having identified the problem, the next step in analysis is to consider its causes and then to give alternate solutions or courses of action, weighing the pros and cons of each. Finally, it is necessary to select one solution and be prepared to support it. It should be noted that sometimes the best course of action in a case is the "zero option," to do nothing.

An important point to discuss with students preparing to work with case studies in business courses is that case studies have no "right answer." They are intended to serve as the basis for class discussion in MBA (as well as ESP) classes rather than to demonstrate either effective or ineffective handling of a business situation. A statement to that effect is often written into each case to serve as a reminder.

Many international students have problems dealing with this kind of ambiguity, the absence of one right answer (Candlin, et al, 1982). Students may have encountered case studies in business training in their native countries; however, the approach used in their courses was probably different. It is likely that they were asked to read the case carefully and then come up with the right solution to the problem, usually with help from their instructor. As a result, they may find the common classroom practice in the United States, which emphasizes discussion and debate, unsettling and even frustrating.

Cases are deliberately designed to be open-ended. They stop without recommending a solution and ask the analyst to decide what to do next. A number of alternate courses of action will usually present themselves, and several of these may be equally viable. As a result, there will be differences of opinion about what the "best" course of action is. To cope with this, students must be encouraged to be open-minded and prepared to defend their chosen course of action based on their analysis of the material.

Supplementary ESP Materials

In addition to unadapted cases and guidelines for helping students read and analyze them, there are other supplementary materials in business and language learning that can be included. Readings on relevant business theories, such as management or marketing, can be helpful to both ESP teachers and students in formulating possible solutions to a problem. In addition, with less advanced students, it is advisable to include a few questions to focus attention on key facts in the case. Charles (1984) suggests using supplementary ELT materials to reinforce structural or lexical items crucial to a particular case. In line with Edge and Samuda's (1981) "methodials" (in which method and materials are joined), Charles recommends that the teacher anticipate what language points will be needed in analysis of a case and then insert them at the crucial point when students have a "need to mean" (Edge and Samuda, 1981). For example, when students are sampling and then comparing the tastes of "Coke Classic" and "New Coke," with that of "Pepsi," the teacher can be prepared to provide students with the necessary comparative and superlative forms ("It tastes the same as Pepsi to me!"). In addition, Charles points out that the teacher should be ready to supplement students' "ordinary" language with more colorful, idiomatic language to express their ideas (Student: "They gave him money so he would not say anything." Teacher: "Right! They wanted to have him on the hook.").

In addition to supplementary materials that focus on improving linguistic accuracy, that is, grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation, materials that develop linguistic fluency can be used in a case study course to help students meet the oral challenge of their business classes.

Developing Linguistic Fluency

Murphy (1986) defines linguistic fluency as the "use of language" and accuracy as "knowledge of the language." According to Murphy, "errors of fluency" result from mistakes in the sociopragmatics of group discussion. These errors are due to the absence of feedback or the inappropriate use of feedback to maintain successful communication. Errors of fluency are being made, for example, if some people in a group never get a turn to speak, or if people are looking down at their papers instead of at the speaker to avoid having to speak next, or if silence falls over the group and no one knows how to proceed. These errors of fluency are due to problems with turn-taking and the absence of feedback to tell the speaker if her/his message is getting across.

If learners are to communicate successfully in a language other than their own, they must reduce their errors of fluency. To do this, they need to know how to use feedback appropriately. I have found that the use of a video method can guide students to appreciate the importance of feedback in communication and to learn how to use it effectively.

The Video Method

One very helpful tool in teaching the use of feedback is video recording and playback. Video is the ideal medium to capture the sociopragmatic aspects of group discussion. As Kennedy (1983) suggests, video can play a key role in helping international students participate in university seminars. As students' problems are often both verbal and nonverbal, it can be immensely valuable to study and discuss videotaped examples of successful and unsuccessful communication. By viewing a group of people engaged in discussion, such as a group of MBA candidates, ESL students can be guided to practice skills that are necessary and expected in small-group discussions. These ESL students can then be videotaped and see themselves in action. This use of video to illustrate strengths and weaknesses in communication is much more effective in improving students' discussion skills than the instructor patrolling the classroom to encourage everyone to speak up.

By videotaping native and non-native MBA students, I have developed the following set of guidelines for producing video materials that encourage the appropriate use of feedback in small-group discussion in order to avoid errors of fluency. As previously mentioned, this video-based method, although originally designed for students interested in business, could be equally well applied in EAP or general ESL courses as well.

The first step is to videotape a small group of people (preferably native and non-native speakers) engaged in discussion of a case study. When videotaping there are a few points to remember: a) Restrict the group to four or five people. More than five people tend not to participate equally in a discussion, and a large group will not fit into the picture with faces clearly visible if you are using a regular camera lens. If possible, use a wide angle lens even with just four or five people. b) Be certain to use separate rooms if there is more than one discussion group because the sound carried between groups will be recorded. c) Depending upon the sensitivity of the microphone on the camera, an external microphone might be advisable to record voices clearly. d) For later reference or research, have a sign-in sheet for your participants including name, native country, and amount of time they have lived in the U.S.

The second step before showing the model tape to the students is to note the general types of feedback, both verbal and nonverbal, used to maintain fluent communication in the group discussion. Common feedback gambits include those for expressing understanding/not understanding (which are particularly important for ESL students) and agreement/disagreement. In addition, there are many expressions to show indecision and to "buy time," such as "Well, let me think," or "That's a good question," as well as expressions to introduce one's point of view. Beedham (mimeo.) gives a quite thorough analysis of the language of case studies in terms of grammatical points and communicative functions.

When selecting segments to show to ESL students, remember to keep them short with the focus usually on only one type of feedback. Several segments that illustrate the use of a specific type of feedback can even be combined into a new tape using film editing equipment to facilitate moving from one segment to the next. Having selected the segments, exercises can then be developed to draw students' attention to crucial points, for example, descriptive exercises to focus on nonverbal language or cloze exercises to elicit particular feedback gambits.

In the third step, students view the segments from the model tape of MBA students. Class discussion focuses on the specific type of feedback, such as expressing agreement or disagreement. After noting the particular gambit(s) used in the segment, students are encouraged to generate alternatives that would also have been appropriate in that specific use context.

By now you have established the importance of feedback in maintaining successful communication and have provided students with a repetoire of feedback gambits and their appropriate use contexts by analyzing a series of model segments. The next step, then, is to monitor the students' use of feedback in their own group discussion. Video is especially well-suited for this purpose. With video, it is not necessary to interrupt an activity to correct errors of fluency, which would serve just to distract students from their purpose of analyzing the case. Rather, students can view the tape later either privately with the instructor or together as a group to determine whether a healthy give and take existed or whether a breakdown in communication had occurred, and if so, why? Seeing themselves on tape graphically illustrates the students' strong and weak points in communication and is much more effective than the instructor's interrupting the discussion to make corrections. Learners can assess their own language performance and set their own goals for the term. Finally, subsequent student discussions can be taped and analyzed to determine whether students' skills at maintaining a fluent discussion have improved.

Conclusion

Case studies present exceptional difficulties for international business students in terms of receptive and productive skill requirements. Students are not only required to read a lengthy text overflowing with new vocabulary and idioms and to prepare a written analysis, but they are also required to engage in an often intense debate of the case with other students, most of whom will probably be native speakers. To do this effectively, students must be adept at using feedback appropriately in discussions; they must be able to communicate with few "errors of fluency." Language instructors can help them achieve this linguistic fluency as well as accuracy. This type of skill development can be facilitated by use of the video method.

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APPENDIX A

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CULTURE SHOCK AS A BARRIER TO INTERCULTURAL BUSINESS COMMUNICATION

by

John L. Waltman, Ph.D.
Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, Michigan 48197

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John L. Waltman, Ph.D.
Eastern Michigan University

INTRODUCTION

Culture shock, the predictable result of immersion into a new environment, represents a formidable barrier to effective international business communication. To the sojourner starting a lengthy tour of duty, culture shock is too often the cause of premature termination or at least markedly reduced efficiency. It can be costly in both tangible and intangible terms unless it is properly handled.

This paper explores the phenomenon of culture shock as it impacts on intercultural business communication. It first sets out the symptomology of the syndrome and explores the effects on the business sojourner and his/her communication.

It then explores the flaws in most current training that actually increase rather than reduce culture shock's impact on sojourners, flaws that trainees are ironically in part responsible for perpetuating. Thus, rather than providing communication skills that will equip a sojourner to do business effectively and cope with the alien environment, much training prepares one merely for the most basic functions without touching on the areas that will make (or break) one as a communicator.

The paper closes with suggestions for improved training which can help sojourners achieve the appropriate equilibrium and succeed in conducting business overseas. The material for this presentation is drawn in part from research on culture shock and information theory, and in part from my own experiences with culture shock while in Peace Corps.

DEFINITION

The first detailed discussion of culture shock was Oberg's: "Culture shock is precipated by the anxiety that results from losing all our familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse. These signs or cues include the thousand and one ways in which we orient ourselves to the situation of daily life" [Oberg, 1961, p.177]. For the sojourner, what had been so predictable in the home environment, what had served to reinforce the exchange of information (through redundancy), is no longer available. Instead, the sojourner finds that all familiar communication landmarks are either gone, or, if present, have entirely different meanings from what they had in the native culture. The foreign receiver also may be confused since what appears to be a familiar set of signs may be interpreted in the light of the new culture. [Ronen, 1986, p. 95] The disequilibrium that this confusion signals will not be resolved until the sojourner has adjusted to the new culture, if that ever occurs.

The specific physical and mental symptoms of culture shock vary depending on the individual, but they follow certain patterns. These include excessive concern over health or cleanliness, a sense of helplessness, a fear of exploitation, a longing for home and old friends, and general irritability. These are frequently accompanied by stress symptoms brought on by the overall situation [J. Bennett, 1977, p.46]. The sojourner's attitude is frequently shaped by the frustration over diet, digestion, housing, and transportation. Craig notes that the sojourner will also engage in excessive washing of hands, have an absent-minded faraway stare, excessive fatigue, and engage in excessive drinking.[1979, p.160].

Culture shock will run through four major stages before the expatriate resolves the matter. In the first stage (lasting anywhere from a few days to six months) the newcomer finds the host country fascinating. Dorothy in The Wizard of Oz is at this stage when she says "Something tells me we're not in Kansas anymore, Todo." Frequently, the first few experiences in the new culture are eased by others who try to make the individual feel welcome. But reality eventually intrudes, and the sojourner must cope with it in a variety of ways including dietary, domestic, and job-related. This is Dorothy's stage in Oz when she says "Now I know we're not in Kansas anymore!"

At this point, the second stage of the syndrome, the traveler has no choice but to interpret events in the light of his or her own experience and commences to do just that. Seeking meaning, the sojourner tends to generalize the acts of individual personality types. In this stage, the sojourner attempts to discover familiar patterns in the new culture (and in doing so begins to construct cultural stereotypes), and is seeking to impose her/his own order and meaning onto this new world. This natural tendency Milton Bennett calls "sympathy" in that one is trying to interpret events as if they were being carried out in a familiar culture [1979, p.411].

Unfortunately, all of this often makes little or no sense. As the expatriate tries to impose the meanings that events, words, and actions would have in his or her own native culture, little or nothing computes. The severity of culture shock depends, of course, on the amount of difference between the two cultures and the amount of travel experience the individual has previously had [Hays, 1972, p.88].

This second stage is the crisis stage of the culture shock syndrome and is compounded by the natives' seeming indiffernce to the problems. Here is the poor expatriate trying to make sense out of it all and no one seems to care. And at this point the expatriate will lash out and condemn "them" for their crazy ways of doing things. The negative impact on business communications is obvious here!

At the third stage, the choice is now either fight or flight [Craig, 1979, pp.168-170] Unfortunately, before getting to this third stage, many individuals find the second stage so overwhelming that they decide to quit. Rahim reports that the rate of return he found in a 1983 study was from 25-40% [1983, p.312]. Peace Corps programs have had as much as a 60% dropout rate for overseas trainees. For the individuals who decide to see the situation through, the situation seems nearly overwhelming. Despite that, they determine to handle the matter. How this is done depends on a number of variables which will also determine just how successful the person becomes as a businessperson in the new environment. The truly successful ones are those who pass through the fourth stage and learn to accept the "foreign" way as just one other way of doing things. After this stage, life becomes more tolerable, though never simple [Oberg, 1961, pp. 178-9].

Resolution of culture shock can take several courses, not all of which encourage effective business communication. One option is xenophobia; the other culture is totally rejected. In this instance, departure is probably the best resolution. Some practice a less harmful variant and become members of "The American Colony" and hide out in the compound. At the other extreme is xenophilia; the sojourner embraces the new culture and rejects the old (something that happens occasionally with Peace Corps Volunteers). Although the latter option seems desirable, it is not. The sojourner orginally came to share a culture that he or she now totally rejects. Efficiency suffers naturally. A balanced approach is probably the best. While the individual's feelings towards the new culture may not be neutral, they are not strong either way. Thus, the individual can function (and communicate) in the new culture without losing perspective on the old. In fact, the self-effacing sojourner may be seen as highly suspect and insincere by the native population which expects a difference [Craig, 1979, p.11].

Impact on Business Communication

How all of this confusion impacts on business communication can easily be seen. The disoriented expatriate businessperson frustrated by endless anxieties finds his or her communication deteriorating. Not only is this new culture confusing, but life must go on as normally as possible if one is to keep one's position. Appointments must be kept, acquaintances made, and problems resolved. Rahim [1983, p.313] notes that key expatriate executives may be called on to communicate in six major categories:

External relations
Headquarters relations
Family relations
Internal relations
Home government relations
Host government relations

Clearly, an expatriate might very well be expected to be an effective communicator. Yet, when the culture shock bound businessperson tries to carry on as he or she would normally, results are less than satisfactory or even non-existant.

While the old familiar ways do not work, they are often all that the new expatriate has to call on. The result is anxiety. J. Bennett notes that "two very contradictory systems vie for equal time. All we have held sacred is reflected in a distortion mirror, and the image flashed back throws us off balance, a sort of cultural fun-house whose previous orientations contribute little or nothing to the survival of the psyche [1977, p.47]. As Hays notes, "most of the rules relating to behavior standards are culture bound in the sense that they are uniquely generated and taught to help the individual get along in that particular culture" [1972, p88]. In the new culture, one not only does not know what to do but feels thwarted by being unable to act. The individual "is left with a void in the set of assumptions upon which he can base his behavior and expectations." [Hays, 1972, p.88].

And, for the expatriate with no skills in the new language, much of the problem may lie with Sapir and Wnorf's theory that language provides a guide to social reality as well as a communication medium. For these two, language influences perceptions and transmits thoughts, as well as helping pattern them. It is a frame of reference that determines the perceptions and thoughts of cultural members. Thus, the differing labels for signs or concepts may also indicate different thought processes are involved. [1976, p.49]

Being immersed in the whole situation, the individual often does not even realize that he or she is suffering from culture shock. Ironically, the trainee may never have run into the concept in training [Hays, 1972, p. 88]. Frustration and depression result since the traveler forgets the need for self examination and analysis of relationships with others [Maddox, 1971, p28]. Finding that time-tried techniques for interaction simply do not work, the frustrated sojourner may abandon all support systems that just might see him or her through.

Just why culture shock has such a profound effect on business (or any other type of) communication is not far to seek. Samovar and Porter's [1976, p. 10] communication variables determined by culture are of value here because they clearly illustrate why this clash is so great:

1. Attitudes
2. Social Organization
3. Thought Patterns
4. Roles
5. Language Skill
6. Space
7. Time Sense
8. Nonverbal Communication

By their very nature, these variables are going to affect the long-term businessperson. The thought patterns for example, are going to create problems as the North American sender follows one pattern and his Saudi Arabian counterpart another. Or the roles to be played can interfere as the North American superior tries to get her Indian subordinate to engage in participative management.

Or consider the North American who is doing a slow backwards dance across the room as his Greek counterpart repeatedly closes in on his space all the while wondering just why the North American is so unfriendly. Or what of the sojourner who arrives promptly for a meeting with the Emir only to find that others are already waiting for earlier appointments. And, when the Emir finally sees the American, others interrupt repeatedly to the latter's annoyance.

Culture shock, plain and simple, is a communication problem. If effective communication involves the mutual exchange of information which precedes right action, it cannot be achieved if one of the parties cannot effectively encode the messages that he/she wishes to send or accurately decode those received. The sojourner attempts to interpret what is perceived but has only the light of her or his own experience as a guide. And in the new culture, entirely new patterns are involved. At the minimum, two separate symbol systems are being applied by the two communicators. And the commonality of background may range from slight to nil.

Culture shock should come as no surprise, then. The expatriate, used to the familiar communication patterns of his or her own culture, applies meaning to what is being seen, unconsciously of course. While the person cannot help but be aware that the two cultures (his/her own and the new one) are different, he/she has not yet realized just to what extent they differ. It is not a matter of just adopting a few gestures, learning a few polite phrases and avoiding using the left hand; the whole symbol system differs, and radical adjustments must be made. Craig [1979, p.166] notes that the individual "comes to understand that people are not necessarily bound by universal patterns of mutual understanding." The expatriate in this situation can be likened to an individual facing a group with an inside joke. The expatriate knows that something is wrong, but cannot pin it down. Only the situation is no joke.

TRAINING PROBLEMS

If one were conducting training for sojourners, the seemingly obvious solution would be to orient the sojourner to what s/he will be able to expect in the new culture based on Samovar and Porter's list. Once the sojourner learned the basics, s/he could be shipped over with no problems. But problems do result, training does go awry. Just why it does is not far to seek.

Stewart provides an overview of training programs which considerably clarifies the situation. He suggests that the fault lies in part with the sojourner and in part with the training received. When the sojourner first learns of the impending overseas assignment, he/she is usually initially concerned with geographical, cultural, and social issues. This would seem to be the logical foci for the training. However, as the departure date approaches, many travellers, especially the unseasoned, begin to "fear threats to health, personal hardships, and social complexities...concrete factors which affect and may endanger well-being." [1971, p.19]. Potential travelers convey these concerns to trainers which in turn leads them to develop lists of do's and donts, or so-called "dissatisfiers" rather than programs which provide information on the new culture and adapting to it. To cite one example, Craig surveyed training for expatriates working in Malaysia and found that only 16 percent of them had been offered cultural orientation. [1979, p.173] Or to cite another, a table in Bovee and Thill's basic business communication text shows the students "How to say it: Some Basic English in Translation." The student learns greetings, learns how to pardon him/herself, and how to deal with money and postal problems, but no more. Similarly, the sojourner who gets his/her way in training may end learning no more than how to find restrooms or order in restaurants as well as how to say "hello" or "excuse me" in the new situation. In doing so, the sojourner assures him/herself that minor inconveniences (dissatisfiers) will be avoided. However, while dissatisfaction in the new culture may decline, satisfaction does not rise.

The satisfiers, "positive factors or working conditions and life-style which are meaningful to the individual" [Stewart, 1977, p.20], fit in with Maslow's self-actualizing elements and are not as easily defined or as easily attained in the new culture. Thus, the lower needs on Maslow's hierarchy are attainable, but not the higher.

And, if the sojourner is to be comfortable in the long run, the satisfiers have the greatest long-term value. But because so many sojourners devote their attention before departure on immediate survival matters, the more valuable skills, including communication, get neglected in training [Stewart, 1977, p.20]. The need for these becomes apparent once the traveller begins to settle in. As Stewart notes: "Beneath the hard surfaces of survival issues, the traveler has from the beginning confronted the deeper levels of cultural differences, which are typically perceived in nonverbal communication such as the traveler's use of time...or of space...tone of voice, facial expressions, posture and body movement" [Stewart, 1977, p.21]. In the face of this training which has neglected the key concerns, culture shock will often follow.

But what is adequate training? What does the sojourner need in order to minimize culture shock? The key may lie in Samovar and Porter's list of communication variables determined by culture. A thorough grounding in the culture is a must for the businessperson hoping to stay long term in the new culture. Probably the hardest of these elements would be language, but competent interpreters are available (but not always hired) to help in that area. Then, the training could concentrate on the other elements:

Attitudes
Social Organization
Thought Patterns
Roles
Use of Space and Time
Nonverbal Signals

Training should also include the concept of culture shock. The sojourner should know what it is when it hits him or her in order to combat it as well as what its causes and symptoms are.

The knowledge of the new culture and increased self awareness can help the sojourner see the environment from the native's perspective. This empathy (to use Milton Bennett's term) permits an individual to see others acting within a framework that has meaning to them. At the same time, the individual is able to maintain his or her identity even as he/she understands the other.

Space is inadequate to give full details on Milton Bennett's concept of empathy, but a brief sketch is possible. In the new cultural setting, as the sojourner learns that past patterns are inadequate, he or she must learn to see the environment form the natives' perspective. Instead of seeking meaning in terms of past experience (which is only natural), Bennett argues that it is now necesary to apply empathy, his "platinum rule" which replaces the Golden Rule. Instead of doing unto others as one would have done unto oneself, one does unto others as they would have done unto them.

Bennett sets out six steps to achieving empathy. In following these steps, the sojourner gains insights into his/her own cultural assumptions and is able to separate these from the cultural assumptions of the host culture. To protect oneself from ego loss, the individual always maintains his/her own cultural identity, but is able to keep that separate in interpreting the new culture [M. Bennett, 1979, pp.419-422]

CONCLUSIONS

Culture shock can indeed devastate international business communication as it attacks the very basis of communication: perception. As the communicator attempts to interpret signs (sensory experience) in the light of experience, chaos results when nothing makes sense in the new context. At the very least, business relations are crippled, but if nothing is done to allay its effects, culture shock may force the businessperson to terminate the whole project. The key lies in proper training which focuses not just on the dissatisfiers, but also on the communication variables set out by Samovar and Porter. And training should bring in Bennett's theory of empathy. Also necessary is a clear awareness of the symptomology and resolution of the whole syndrome,

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THE FIFTH SKILL: HEARING THE UNSPOKEN LANGUAGE

Montserrat Vilarrubla

Eastern Michigan University
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Languages and Communication
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The Fifth Skill: Hearing the Unspoken Language

The purpose of this paper is not to discuss how a particular community uses time, or moves, or conceives space but to illustrate the many metalinguistic aspects of language discussed in a variety of studies on non-verbal communication.

This paper will be given from the perspective not only of a language teacher but also that of a former public relations executive who became involved in the culture concept partly because of what she discovered and learned dealing with people of many cultures, and partly because of what she experienced when trying to adjust herself to a new culture. Also, because she feels that, as a native speaker of Spanish, she has a commitment towards the students and the teaching of Spanish as a foreign language.

The limitations for this study were great. First, the vast bibliography available made it impossible to review each one of the materials. Second, because of the variety of gestures that we humans can generate, to try to analyze them all in relation to the different cultures of the world could be an extremely difficult task. Last, it goes beyond the scope of this paper to study each one of the methods for cross-cultural training and non-verbal communication sensitizing.

The goal was to put together, in an eclectic way, the different aspects of non-verbal communication, narrowing it to how it affects us as 'Teachers of Language for Business and the Professions'. To prepare our students for both, language ability and cross-cultural understanding will redound to the benefit of the individuals and of the companies that hire them.

Communication is established among humans in two modes, verbal and non-verbal. Non-verbal communication, the unspoken language, is a complex system of sending messages that may or may not be accompanied by words and, what is more important, may or may not be used intentionally or consciously; sometimes it may lie beneath and go beyond the level of awareness.

According to Birdwhistell (1970), verbal language seems to occupy just one third of our means of communication and the other three parts are filled by non-verbal language.[1]

Language, verbal and non-verbal, differs significantly from one culture to another. Although some features can be universally recognized, some others can be recognized only by natives of that culture; but certain others can have several different interpretations. The lack of awareness of the latter is what will cause a barrier to effective communication. As Hayes (1972) says, "if the signals that accompany messages are not properly received and sent, communication is impeded".[2]

A great number of studies have been carried out to investigate the linguistic and non-linguistic signs. It was Saussure (1955) who introduced the idea of the two sides of the linguistic sign, the "signifié and the "signifiant".[3]

French semiologists Barthes and Greimas directed their studies towards the social forms that function in the manner of a language. According to Barthes (1968), any semiologic system accompanies language[4] , which implies that it is non-verbal communication the one that is complemented by verbal expression.

In America, Carnap and Morris formulated several distinctions in relation to the sign. Morris (1971) distinguishes three dimensions of a sign: semantic, that which relates 'symbol' and 'referent'; syntactic, that between signs themselves; pragmatic, how signs and symbols are used by man as a manner of language.[5]

Some studies have concentrated on the patterns of communication (e.g. Izard 1971, Johnson 1975, Haney 1979), or have been carried out to investigate social and interpersonal relationships (e.g. Ardrey 1970, Ascraft 1976, Bull 1983) while others (e.g. Feldman 1959, Birdwhistell, Fast 1970, Critchley 1971, Morris 1977 and 1979, Gorham 1985) describe non-verbal communication in terms of distribution, environment, behavioral patterns, and neurology of signs. Most have focused on cross-cultural differences and have described the difference between intentional and instinctive aspects of non-verbal 'language'. Only a few studies have been directly related to the importance of non-verbal communication in business and trade, or in other aspects such as teaching and education, although several studies involve inter-cultural awareness (e.g. Brault 1962, Allison, Green, Nieremberg 1968, Hayes 1972, Niemi 1976, Bonoma 1977, Rose 1978, Wolfgang 1979, Green 1982, Curt 1983 and 1984, Waltman 1984, Seelye 1985). Finally, since the first bibliography of 'gestures' by Hayes in 1957, several other bibiliographies about non-verbal communication have been published (e.g. Bäuml 1975, Wylie 1977, Rasberry 1979, Davis et al. 1982).

The most common classification of non-verbal language relates to how it is 'spoken', how the messages are sent. During conversation our brain not only receives and sends messages via sound vibrations but also via body movements, categorized as "emblems" by Ekman et al., Bull, and others, or as "actions" by Morris. These movements are physical acts performed by certain parts of our body, gestures that can involve only one part of the body (such as head, face, eyes) but which generally occur in combinations.[6] In Birdwhistell (1970) we find a division of the body into eight sections which conform to movement with message: "head and face, trunk and shoulders, arm and wrist, hands and fingers, hips, legs, ankles and feet, and neck."[7]

Each event has its own linguistic and paralinguistic message which is linked to our special way of reacting to emotions. It depends on how neurophysiological information is processed, on how the two hemispheres of the brain interact. Neurological research provides us with information on how our brain works. The task of the right hemisphere (left side of the body) is to process emotions, abstract and symbolic meanings, and synthetic messages; that is, paralinguistic cues are encoded and decoded on the right brain hemisphere. The left hemisphere (right side of the body) controls verbal speech, analytic processes, and linear and sequential ordering.[8] Trotter, as well as others, seems to be saying that the dichotomy of the brain hemispheres can be linked to the way societies of the world behave. It seems that, according to this idea, Western European societies would be dominated by the left brain hemisphere while Mediterranean, African, and Caribbean peoples would be dominated by the right brain hemisphere.

In reviewing the distribution of meaning of certain gestures studied by D. Morris (1979), there is a sense of parallelism, if not to the direct reference of which hemisphere of the brain controls certain societies, certainly to Trotter's classification of society-brain hemisphere distribution. It is important to notice how a gesture such as "The Eyelid Pull" can have two contrasted meanings ("I am alert"/"Be alert") which will be found in contrastive distribution of usage. The "I am alert" meaning is located from France to Scotland crossing Northern Europe, whereas the "Be alert" meaning is located from Spain throughout the Mediterranean area, although there were several zones of mixture of meanings.[9]

The difficulties in suggesting a theory of interpreting nonverbal acts lie in the fact that there are psychological variables which will modify the codes according to context. Gestures, as a way of transmitting messages, can be divided in two main groups: one, innate expressions of fundamental emotions which are universally recognized, such as those of sorrow, joy, fear, surprise, anger, etc., and two, learned gestures which carry specific symbolic meanings and are the "most difficult to recognize because their origins have been obscured."[10]

To observe and perceive gestures is easy, although certain gestures are more easily recognized than others (e.g. facial and hand gestures), but it is necessary to interpret them without being influenced by our own culturally-learned feelings which, usually, will not correlate with those of the foreign situation.

What are the implications for educators? It is important to understand and be aware of the factors which impede cross-cultural communication. We must try to sensitize our students to the differences in foreign cultures so that they are trained to make their own observations and to modify their own behavior. We must make use of media materials to assist us in cross-cultural communication. There are excellent resources which provide a vast array of topics to discuss and behaviors to mime. Among them, TV commercials are an excellent way of viewing 'others' realities' because commercials sometimes emphasize stereotypes and those, when not seen as such, act as a barrier to effective communication. Stereotyping reduces complex entities to a simple two-value system 'either good or bad' and the discussion of a certain stereotyped action will enhance cross-cultural awareness.

For our students, cross-cultural differences are as difficult as phonetics. Gestures, as well as words, occur in groups and have their own system of combinations. If an Anglo speaker learning Spanish has difficulty in mastering a non-gliding sound when pronouncing the Spanish first person singular personal pronoun "YO", he will encounter as much difficulty when trying to master 'gazing patterns' of Spanish speakers withou feeling uneasy.

Different perceptions of reality are communicated through both verbal and non-verbal modes, but the non-verbal are more susceptible to misinformation in general, as many signs can bear more than one interpretation --just as words can have more than one meaning, even contradictory at times. Some signs --the obvious ones-- will be recognizable, but aome others --the hidden-- will be appreciated by few people. The absence of familiar non-verbal cues when two cultures come into contact is one of the reasons for what is known as 'culture shock'. Sometimes, it is not 'cultural shock' that can be suffered but what Seelye calls "cross-cultural fatigue",[11] meaning that fatigue caused by having to work harder to do the simplest things and having to deal with people who 'do not understand'.

How does one avoid some of the communication barriers that can occur? Some approaches to non-verbal conflicts have to be viewed from the perspective of comprehension and understanding.

First, we have to think that 'travelers' problems' are not different from those of 'sojourners', although natives expect temporary residents in their country to be different yet, to understand better than travelers. Still, temporary residents should not try to behave just like natives if they do not want to be considered 'suspicious'. Second, we should approach other cultures with empathy, using a non-judgemental position, far from our narrow cultural perspective. Third, we should be respectfully and calmly tolerant in order to avoid hostilities from arising or frustrations from impeding the accomplishment of our goals.

Everybody in business knows that the language of trade (national or international) is the language of the customer --but not necessarily the spoken language.!

As teachers, we should plan our general objectives for how to train our students. The challenge is not 'to be aware' but, once one is aware of the non-verbal language, how to deal with its 'idiomatic' expressions. To tell our students that in Africa they should not use their left hand for social purposes or that the soles of their shoes should not be exposed in Arab countries is not enough to achieve self-actualization on the part of the student. To share articles such as that of Alsop (1960), no matter how autobiographical they may be, is a good source for teaching, but it is certainly not enough. We have to help our students build up the necessary mechanisms of adjustment which will be needed when they have to deal with the 'real situation' that is, with the interaction in the foreign culture. It is a matter of 'socialization' into the new culture which does not necessarily run parallel to fluency in the spoken language; on the contrary, fluency in the spoken language sometimes serves as a barrier because it creates a false idea among the host people that 'we' have acquired 'cultural fluency' as well.

Let us explore some ways teachers can help improve non-verbal fluency for business communication and overall communication in foreign languages.

There are many techniques for teaching that can help to sensitize students to cross-cultural miscommunication. Hoopes (1979) offers a whole range of valuable information on training interaction in the foreign language classroom. Gorden (1968) and Fersh (1974) have developed a prototype 'mini-drama' that help students by forcing them to 'feel' the vagueness due to different cultural connotations of words. A similar project can be implemented to make students experience the misunderstandings in non-verbal communication. When we use 'mini-dramas' in class, each episode has to be well rounded; instructions have to be very precise and clear; the teacher is required to have an extensive background in the non-verbal signs related to the culture of the language that is being taught; video-taping the in-class activity is necessary in order to be able to carry out a discussion later on. Each student in the class should have a role. The 'actors' should be given their role just before the performance but with enough time to put themselves into action. There should be a kind of self-confrontation in order to simulate reality. The other students should be given instructions on where to focus their attention, and one student should act as the narrator who introduces the scene but who does not solve the problem.

> The Telephone Call
> Mr. T., an American business man, is in Spain and phones the company he wants to visit to arrange a meeting with the general manager. Miss P., the secretary, answers the phone and makes the arrangements, but, as they do not suit Mr. T's plans, he tries to convince her to accept his own conditions.

The 'mini-drama' has to be performed as a pantomime, using only gestures. Students A and B, the actors, should not be present in class when the narrator tells the story. Student A will be given a list (drawings included if necessary to avoid personal emotions from interfering) with the gestures he is to perform; so will student B, although A and B should not know each other's gestures. Each of the other students will be assigned to pay attention to a different part of the body, write down what types of movements he sees, and the meaning that he perceives.
The video-recording of the scene will be used to analyze the variety of non-verbal messages that have been sent by both 'actors' and contrasted with those perceived by the other memebers in the class. In the particular case of the telephone call, hand and face will be sending the highest amount of mes-

sages. Specific gestures such as ways of counting with fingers, dialing the numbers on the telephone, expressing apology, giving the 'OK' sign or the negation, etc. are the ones that will have to be expressed by the 'actors' and decoded by the 'expectators'. The decoding of cues is expected to be affected by personal, unconscious emotions, and the teacher will act as mere intermediary between the 'actors' and the 'receivers' of the culturally differentiated gestures to be discussed. As Kirch (1979) says, "if our objective is to teach communication in a foreign language we cannot restrict ourselves to the verbal system alone, but we must also pay attention to the non-verbal systems of the foreign culture, too."[12]

As non-verbal communication is a culturally differentiated process, verbal and non-verbal languages have to be integrated as a whole to make them applicable to business situation. When we talk of language competence and performance, we should also include 'ethnic competence', a kind of cultural awareness of one's own culture as well as that of others', or the development of a fifth skill: hearing the unspoken language.

Notes

1. Birdwhistell, R.L. (1970)
2. Hayes, A.S. (1972)
3. Saussure, F. de (1955)
4. Barthes, R. (1968)
5. Morris, C. W. (1971)
6. Morris, D. (1977)
7. Birdwhistell, R.L. (1970)
8. Trotter, R.J. (1976)

9. Morris, D. (1979)
10. Morris, D. (1977)
11. Seelye, N.H. (1985)
12. Kirch, M.S. (1979)

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MISCOMMUNICATION ACROSS CULTURES:
THE CASE OF MARKETING IN INDIAN ENGLISH

Jane Frank
Georgetown University
Washington, D.C. 20007

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1. Introduction

Successful communication rests on the notion that messages achieve their intent. If the explicit purpose of the message is to generate sales, yet the originator's implicit intent (persuasion) is not achieved, marketing strategies can be said to have failed to effect desired outcomes. Historically, issues related to direct marketing texts' "intelligibility" and "acceptability" in foreign markets have been the concern of multi-national firms whose marketing strategies have required close attention to cultural divergence and problems related to equivalencies in translation. However, the present global spread and use of English[1], and concurrent recognition that marketing across cultures may be successfully accomplished using English as the language of "choice" for bridging international language barriers, may present new and different problems related to the varieties of English used by copywriters and their targeted audience.

Native English speaking (NS) recipients of written sales material prepared by non-native English speakers (NNS), while capable of overcoming some difficulties resulting from features transferred from writers' native languages, and able to derive meaning and relevance from even the most seemingly ambiguous of messages, will nontheless remain unpersuaded if the contents of texts do not conform to expected shared norms of understanding. This problem may arise in cases where cross-cultural differences in the use of English preserves semantic meaning at the potential expense of pragmatic understanding; a state of affairs which interferes with readers' ability to draw appropriate inferences from the written discourse, hence places in jeopardy NNS marketers' success in achieving sales objectives in the American market. One case in point is the example of a sales letter, written in English by a NNS, which was a direct mail-order solicitation to purchase a book published and marketed by an Indian firm.

In this paper, I examine the contents of the letter to show how pragmatic inferences contribute to total communicative content, and how these understandings may play a critical role in achieving or-conversely-failing to achieve, successful cross-cultural communication. First, using examples drawn from the primary data which illustrate the use of several linguistic features, stylistic conventions and rhetorical structures which may distinguish this variety of English (i.e., "Indian English"[2]) from other native Englishes in general (Kachru, B.,1983 a,b, 1986; Kachru, Y., 1983 a,b, in press, Sechrist, et al 1972, and others), I analyze the text to argue that culturally-bound sets of expectations and rhetorical structures can present difficulties to a NS audience because they may be perceived as a deviant application of the general principles they implicitly understand to be governing discourse. That is, I contend that when the message is in English, Native American English speakers would expect the discourse to conform to Conversational Maxims (Grice, 1975), and expect the organization and arrangement of words and phrases to be orderly and relevant (Sperber and Wilson, 1979). Based on the evidence, I claim that readers may not have these expectations fulfilled; the writer, in fact, has violated these principles in ways which suggest that his communicative behavior may have been guided by differing norms. Next, and for comparative purposes, I offer a summary of my analysis of two other sets of data: examples of direct marketing sales texts which were prepared by firms engaged in an identical enterprise, for similar purposes, and distributed (mailed) to the same audience, but were composed by NS in the United States and Great Britain, respectively. I discuss the similarities and contrasts found among the three sets of data, and the theoretical and practical implications of these differences on future research and application.

While the data is limited, the findings overall support my contention that a large part of non-semantic meaning is dependent on shared assumptions re: the norms for communicative behavior as they operate in the reader's own society. That is, readers' understanding of texts will be guided by culturally-conditioned expectations, and the conceptual frameworks which facilitate interpretation and enable them to draw the appropriate pragmatic inferences from the text. Therefore, conceptual approaches which do not take into account cross-cultural differences may be both theoretically limiting and inadequate. While this conclusion is tentative, given the data, it is in line with-and provides further support for-previous research and authors who have addressed the non-universal applicability of Gricean Maxims or semantically related pragmatic theories (Keenan, 1976; B. Kachru, 1982; Y. Kachru 1985; Chishimba, 1982; Levinson, 1983, as examples), as well as sociolinguistic approaches which take into account interethnic differences with regard to pragmatic and discourse features (Gumperz, 1978, 1982; Tannen 1980, as only two of many examples).

Further, based on the data and personal background knowledge[3], there is reason to believe the texts are not only representative of a form of direct mail advertising which has gained wide currency among NS marketers, but-given the spread of English and marketers general willingess to adopt strategies which have previously proven successful-are likely to become the model for similar efforts across national boundaries, with implications for the communicative effectiveness of NNS' efforts. Smith (1987), for example, whose observations are representative of current observers, has noted that while the total number of non-native users of English worldwide presently outnumber the native users, for a majority of these NNS the need and/or opportunity to communicate on a global scale does not exist, nor are issues related to miscommunication *across* cultures an important concern (p. 1-2). While I concur in general with this position, the data indicates that when that need arises-as in the case of cross-cultural marketing efforts-differences in the form and organization of the English used may become problematic. If present trends continue, at issue then will be NNS' and NS' tendency to rely on "prototypical" models of direct mail advertising copy, without taking into account the subtle ways sociolinguistic differences shape pragmatic understandings and contribute to total communicative effect, in circumstances where failure will have potential "real-world" economic consequences.

2. Description of The Data

I studied three examples of direct marketing sales letters which, in function, format, contents and targeted recipient, were similar. All three letters were written and distributed by companies engaged in the same business: the publication of "Who's Who Directories" (their generic label) in India (primary data), England and the United States. These are books designed to record-via biographical profile and/or (optionally) photograph-the background and accomplishments of persons selected for inclusion. All three letters also had a similar format and contents: each item conformed to the requisites of "sales letters"[4] in terms of layout and general presentation; each included (in their general order, but not limited to) a statement of purpose, a description of the product, and an offer to purchase. Further, the recipient of the letter was the same in all three cases.

"Who's Who" directories may/may not be titled as such, and in fact the products represented by the letters had different appelations (see attachment A). However, regardless of their title, there are three important points to be made with regard to these books' manufacture and distribution. First, the production of books which list "persons of merit" is a frequently encountered phenomena across cultures, and across varying occupations and accomplishments deemed note-worthy. Not only are there directories which list "Who's Who" in (for example) America, Western Europe, Africa, India, etc., but directories which identify persons by particular accomplishment (music, art, authors and writers, military record, public service, education, etc.). Hence, books which fall into this class are readily identifiable as such by a wide range of people, whether they have been selected for listing, or not. Second, the process of selection is determined by the editors of the books; persons cannot "self-select" themselves as biographees. Thus, individuals selected for inclusion generally consider it as an honor. Third, persons chosen for listing are usually offered the opportunity to purchase the book in which they appear, in advance of publication. While in most cases the publishers' stated primary purpose is to produce these books as reference sources-and many indeed are found in libraries-as a rule, all individuals listed in these books are offered the opportunity to "reserve" (i.e., order) their own copy (s), at a reduced price (pre-publication), in their choice of edition(s) to be published ("grand", "deluxe", "classic", "personal", "general"), and occasionally are also provided the opportunity to purchase related items of interest (certificates, illustrated plaques, etc.).

For reasons inherent in these books' nature and objective, certain abuses by publishers have surfaced; these cannot be elaborated upon here, but are implied in the following editorial quote: "It cannot be emphasized too strongly that there is no charge or fee of any kind for biographical inclusion in the "International Who's Who in Music", nor is there any obligation to purchase copies" (Melrose Press Ltd., Cambridge England). However, while the author is aware of problems related to the quasi-legitimacy of some offers, and acknowledges that audiences' relative "sophistication" (vis-a-vis similar offers) is an important factor in predicting recipient response, the scope and aim of this paper precludes consideration of these issues in the analysis.

3. Analysis and Interpretation of the Primary Data

The term "Indian English" (IE), similar to labels such as American English or British English, is often applied to the variety of English used in what has traditionally been called the Indian subcontinent, where-historically- British colonialization and the subsequent introduction of bilingualism in English are closely linked. However, while it is a convenient "portmanteau" in practice, and one which I have adopted, following convention, in referring to the data, it must be stated at outset that use of this term should not be construed to imply uniformity in linguistic competence or even linguistic uniformity in this variety (a caveat which applies equally to "American" and "British" English, and to my use of these terms in referencing the data in Section 4.). As B. Kachru has consistently noted (1983, 1986, and elsewhere), this geographic area is notable for its linguistic pluralism and sociolinguistic complexity; a view supported by the extensive literature on the subject (as one example, Mehrotra's illustration of the four levels of intelligibility in the case of Indian English, 1982). Thus, the several grammatical, syntactic and rhetorical features I first describe below, as preface and necessary background to my analysis-while drawn from contemporary studies which have identified these features-are only to be considered "indicative" of the variety, and certainly not exhaustive. I provide this preparatory section only to make clearer, and provide a framework for understanding, the arguments made in the following sections which analyze in detail the contents of the IE text from two differing pragmatic perspectives.

3.1 Background: Discourse Features of IE:

As B. Kachru has demonstrated in a comparative study of non-Western literature (198 b), it is the cross-cultural differences in discourse strategies that arise from the nativization of English-that is, which "entail the transfer of discoursal patterns from one's other (perhaps more dominant) linguistic code and cultural and literary traditions." (p.4)- that underlies and distinguishes IE from other varieties of English.

First, with regard to grammatical and syntactic features, transference from Indic languages may result in deviant (that is, from NS' perspective) sentence constructions. These differences are revealed in the preference of educated Indians for writing in a "learned" style characterized by its complex sentence constructions and "large-scale embeddings" (Kachru, B.,1986; 40). The complex clausal constructions found in declarative and interrogative sentences, and the formation of tag questions, for example, are traceable to this process. Other differences in IE may be the result of an extension in selection restrictions in syntax and semantics. Notable among these is the deviant use of articles, reduplication of items belonging to various word classes, regular, productive syntactic processes which give rise to typically IE collocations, and the use of resumptive pronouns. Articles are present in IE, but their distribution is erratic; they may be "missing","wrong", "intrusive" -to borrow from B. Kachru's categorizations (1986,40). Reduplication is a common feature of South Asian English as a whole, and it is used for emphasis, to indicate continuation of a process, or to create a special effect. IE collocations may be defined as South Asian on the basis of their semantic or syntactic characteristics. In one such productive syntactic process, a unit of higher rank is reduced to a lower rank, so that where a native English speaker might expect to find a clause or a nominal group, an IE user prefers a formation with modifier + head + (qualifier). As one example, "pin-drop silence" in place of "...so silent you could hear a pin drop". Finally, there is use of resumptive pronouns, as evidenced in this sentence excerpted from the data: "To have a copy of this distinguished publication, the volume in which you are included, it will be a pleasure...." (my highlighting for reference).

Second, and equally distinctive of IE, there are differences in rhetorical style. In India, as throughout South Asia, the appropriateness of these styles is determined by several factors, the most important of them native literary and cultural traditions. As Kaplan (1976, 12-15) describes the concept and process, "the organization of paragraphs written in any language by individuals who are not native speakers of that language will be influenced by the rhetorical preferences of the native language...(thus are) likely to be shaped by cultural 'conventions' within a community of speakers". Thus, the recognition that IE may be significantly influenced by Non-Western traditions is critical to understanding the distinctiveness of such texts. With regard to these influences, on both written and verbal discourse, the literature is too extensive to cite in entirety (c.f. Kachru, B. and Y., who have written extensively on this subject; Lowenberg, 1986; Gumperz 1978, 1982, as only four examples). However, briefly summarized, the primary differences pertaining to written discourse are those related to expository form, logical structure, stylistic embellishment and punctuation/prose rhythm. The reasons for these differences are complex, but chief among them are the following (relying most heavily here on writings by Kachru B, 1983b; Pandharipande, 1982; Kaplan 1976): Indian (i.e., non-Western) systems of logic in which correct inferences are established by syllogisms whose form and number differ from those of classical logic, i.e., a "Platonic-Aristotelian" model, and which may be perceived as unwieldy and convoluted by Western standards; a notion of "proper" style in a particular context deriving from languages such as Sanskrit, Persian, and Arabic, where stylistic embellishment is highly valued; the model considered "ideal" for paragraph structure and the logical pattern/progression of ideas, which has been described in the literature as "circular", in contrast to what has been called the "linear" structure of English. Finally, I end this section with a quote from Raja Rao (a well-known Indian novelist), cited by Kachru (1983b, 8) in his discussion of the rhetorical style which typfies S. Asian varieties of English. This quote aptly identifies the organizational and stylistic narrative traditions which, when imposed on a foreign language (English), results in a seemingly unending combination of sentences and a peculiar use of punctuation, hence contributing to IE' distinctiveness:

> "There is no village in India.....that has not a rich sthala-purana (legendary history) of its own...(stories which are)...endless and innumerable. We have neither punctuation nor the treacherous "ats and "ons" to bother us...we tell one interminable tale. Episode follows episode, and when our thoughts stop our breath stops, and we move on to another thought. This was and still is the ordinary style of our story telling."

3.2 Pragmatic Understanding: Gricean Approach

A Grician approach to understanding how pragmatic inferences (implicatures) work to convey meaning beyond that considered a part of semantic meaning rests on shared assumptions about peoples' communicative behavior in general, and the notion that there are conversational principles which underly and govern these behaviors (1975, 78) Grice's Cooperative Principle assumes that participants in interactions will make contributions such as may be required, at the stage at which contributions occur, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which participants are involved. (Levinson 1983,101). Further, based on the assumption of the operation of the Cooperative Principle, participants' interactions will be governed by four general principles which specify what participants need to do in order to converse in a "maximally efficient, rational, and cooperative way" (p.102). These general principles Grice expressed as Conversational Maxims: the Maxim of Quantity (be sufficiently informative); the Maxim of Quality (be sincere, truthful); the Maxim of Manner (be orderly, brief, clear); the Maxim of Relation (be relevant)

The pragmatic understandings which are implicated by the Maxims are presumed to be sufficient to allow readers to make all the inferences needed-even when writer's are apparently deviating from them-and are understood by most interpreters of Grice's theories to be based on rules of conduct which are universal, regardless of cultural context. However, the universality of these conversational postulates has been disputed (Keenan,1976; Y. Kachru, 1982, among others), and in what follows I will show that claims of cultural relativity are well-founded. The linguistic features of IE briefly outlined in Section 3.1 above, which involve the processes of transference and use of nativized stylistic conventions and rhetorical structures, are evidenced in the data and diverge from readers' expectations and shared assumptions regarding communicative interaction, and what constitutes rational, cooperative, organized, and informative discourse.

The greater toleration for digression that characterizes Indian language texts, and the preferred process of clausalization (Indian languages allow a degree of complexity in single clauses not normally accomodated in English) may cause IE writers to find a way for expressing what they perceive to be related events in single sentences. The coordinator "and" is one such device for expressing relatedness:

(1) "We come back upon the correspondence resting with the inclusion of your biographical note in the forthcoming volume of our "Biography International"and thank you much indeed for your esteemed cooperation in sending to us the same.

This example (the very first sentence of the letter) illustrates the differences in grammatical and syntactic construction which may be attributed to "transference", but which may be perceived by NS readers as a violation of the Maxim of Quantity. This type of sentence construction and digressive style is found throughout the letter. As Y. Kachru (1982, 22) has observed, there is greater freedom in introducing new but related episodes in Indic discourse types, provided the "diverse threads" of the discourse are tied together in the end. As used in the letter, however, this style has the unintended effect of "coloring" the discourse in ways which deviate from non-Indic, NS readers' expectation that the writer will provide no more or less information than that required for the current purposes of the exchange.

Transference of Indian "circular" patterns of logical argumentation, which may be perceived as recursive[5], and expository forms such as that evidenced in Hindi, for example (tolerance for digressions which link various episodes in a spiral-like structure; Y. Kachru, 1985, 14) contribute to NS readers' interpreting portions of the text as more informative than warranted, and raise questions regarding its relevancy and truthfulness, as well. A combination of non-linear progression and complexity in clausal constuction yields the following (paragraph #2); I have highlighted that information which would be considered overly informative and/or "suspicious" given its wording/ placement in the paragrah:

(2) "Since we announced to produce "Biography International", we have been receiving a large number of letters everyday (sic) from all parts of the world welcoming the new venture. Numerous requests have already been received from individuals to reserve one or more copies of the volume for their personal use and more orders are pouring in everyday" (sic)

The preference for beginning and ending an argument at roughly the same point is typical of the Indian expository style. Readers, however, may interpret it as redundant and over-abundantly informative; a perception which may induce them to question the writer's objectives and truthfulness. That is, if the largest number of letters received are "congratulatory" in content ("welcoming the new venture"), then "numerous requests" to reserve one or more copies can be inferred to make up only a portion (not all) of these letters, but the exact proportion is unspecified. Moreover, it appears that the author's intent is to persuade readers that the venture has been highly successful-but I would contend that the over-emphasis on "doing well" (large, numerous, one or more, more, pouring in) has just the opposite effect. Indeed, the overall meaning of the paragraph has the pragmatic force of that implied in the phrase "methinks the lady doth protest too much." And, therefore, the writer's veracity may be questionable. Has the writer in fact "cooperated" by producing statements that are the strongest that can be made in the situation, in the order expected (strongest, first)? I maintain there is a disjunct between perceived surface coherence and cohesion in the discourse, and the inferences that will be drawn by NS American readers from the order and presentation of "facts"- more subtly perceived as irrelevant and out-of-order. That is, readers will be able to link "numerous requests' to "large number of letters, "individuals" to (letters) "from all parts of the world", and be able to connect the notion of "reserving" one or more copies to the previous idea of "welcoming" a venture and subsequent "orders"; the paragraph "makes sense". However, at the same time, there is confusion. For, on an implicational scale which American "consumers" might be expected to apply to the text, isn't it more important to "request" than to "welcome", "reserve" rather than "request", and actually "order", rather than "reserve"? Why these choices, why this order, why this verbiage? Readers will look for reasons, and among the potential interpretations for the writer's "flouting" of the Maxims, I contend, are that he is being overly informative, insufficiently brief and orderly, and irrelevant; hence "infelicitous" in his utterances. Together, digression and non-linear logical progression may be perceived as violations of the Maxims which-under the circumstances, and given NS' expectations-may provoke readers to draw inappropriate inferences.

Next, the text exemplifies a transfer of rhetorical style in that it combines the structure and style found in two differing IE "registers"; that found in "average" letters written by educated users of IE (which evidence post-colonnial formalism, adapted to IE needs), and what is referred to as an "administrative" register, still in use by the Indian Bureaucracy. However, these registers have been used-and used "deviantly"-in ways which may contribute to perceived violations of the Maxim of Manner and Relevance.

First, an "administrative" register is typified by its profusion of "initialisms", which creators of texts assume are familiar to readers, thus easily "de-coded". I quote from an example provided by B. Kachru (1986, 45) "H.E."s P.A has written D.O. to the A.S. P. about the question of T.A.'s".

In the letter we find (my highlighting for emphasis):

(3) Enclosed please find Special Concession Order Form for a copy of
"Personal Edition"

I have interpreted this to be a "hyper-correction" on the writer's part; that is, I would contend that the writer is aware that "initialisms" might be unfavorably received, and has therefore attempted to make the letter more "acceptable" to NS American readers. However, readers might be puzzled by the need for capitalization and full identification of the "form". It is not "brief" in the way they would expect ("order form" would have sufficed) while at the same time it is far *too* brief, to be clear (i.e., What happened to the articles? Missing are "a"....Special...; "a" or "the"....Personal Edition). Yet this violation of Manner may simply reflect the writer's efforts to be "clear!

Again, while readers may be put off by all the intensifiers/modifyers in "reduced" position ("forthcoming volume", "considerable pride", "distinguished publication"-perceived as overly informative), we also find phrases such as:

(4) "..... high cost of production" (vs. "high production costs")

Is the author again guilty of "hyper-correction"? The difficulty with analyzing "deviances" of this kind is that they cannot be considered in isolation. It is not the *one* instance of deviation that presents difficulties; it is the erratic distribution of one or more linguistic constructions which are expected to be used that presents problems in interpretation. For example, in the case of articles, they may be missing (as above) or "wrong", as in-

(5) "....accepting it at *a* amazingly low special price"

-while at other times they are used appropriately.

Compounding issues of grammaticality, are issues related to use of idiomatic and formulaic expressions. In the data we find appropriate usage of phrases as in (2) "...orders are *pouring in*", followed by incorrect compounding ("every day", not everyday), and preceded by use of another conventional expression, which "sounds" anachronistic, given its context in the first paragraph (1) "....proposed volume is now expected to run out in a couple of months time." Moreover, there are found several instances in which the writer has relied on familiar, stock expressions (that is, ones familiar to NS American recipients, and common to such advertising) to make the point: such as "We know you shouldn't be without it"; "offered...at a price as low as possible". However, and unfortunately in terms of their overall effect, what rapport they establish in one segment of the discourse is often negated by their over-use, deficient use ("Please return it duly filled in at your earliest possible") and redundant use (in addition to the above "price as low..." are found "at an amazingly low special price"; "offer at this low price"; etc). An inappropriate and inconsistent use of conventional advertising phrases, while unintended by the writer, would likely provoke an unfavorable response to the product and pose a barrier, rather than bridge, to understanding.

Another point mentioned earlier (Section 3.1) had to do with the IE preference for reduplication: for emphasis, to indicate continuation, and to create effect. But again, if brevity and clarity are expected, readers are likely to be disappointed by:

(6) "It is worth most to you because it means most to you, personally, professionally, and for your future as record of your achievement.

Putting aside for the moment another case in which an article is missing ("as...record"), which alone might qualify this sentence as unclear, I call attention to the repetition of the phrase "most to you" in the first clause, separated by "because". I maintain that readers will question the "cause and effect" implied in this clause. Why not, just as reasonably, the reverse? That is, "means most...because it is worth most....". If given an opportunity to challenge the reasoning behind statements, readers will then look for reason for repetition. And, I will guess, they will find none. It is a phrasing essentially devoid of meaning....except, perhaps...for authors who are attempting to create an "effect", to "emphasize" the point, or to link the thought with prior and subsequent ones, to indicate continuity. This can be seen in the sentences which preceded (ex.7) and followed (ex. 8) the example above (6):

(7) "To have a copy of this distinguished publication, the volume in which you are included, it will be a pleasure to you, your family and your friends."

(8) "We know you shouldn't be without it."

Readers will note that "it" (ex 7) is ambiguous; what is pleasurable? to be included in the volume or to own it? Readers will note that this paragraph (made up of lines in ex 7, 6, 8 in that order) also is rambling (obscure), digressive (not brief and to the point), and "disorderly" ("cyclical" vs "linear" presentation of ideas). Together, these factors work to contribute to the "irrelevance" perceived in many of the ideas-even while these thoughts may be entirely "relevant" to the expressive intent of the writer.

3.2. Pragmatic Understanding: Sperber-Wilson Approach

Sperber and Wilson (1979) provide another way of looking at the pragmatic inferences which are part of the total communicative content of a text. Their approach is to analyze-within a semantic framework-the presuppostional properties of words which result from differences in the organization of truth-conditions, and the logical arrangement of words and constructions (p. 303). They suggest that focus constituents of sentences (foreground entailments) are underlied by series of logically ordered background entailments (to yield "chains of entailments")and that the former is determined by grammatical form. A "focal scale" for each sentence is produced by substituting existentially quantified variables (NP's) for constituents in the sentence, beginning with the focus constituent (information that is centrally important -foreground). What is assumed to be relevant is whatever information needs to be added to the backround (peripherally important/presuppositions) in order to obtain the foreground (Levinson 1983, 219)

Turning to the text, the "ordered entailments" presupposed to follow from a structured arrangement of words and phrases is questionable in the following example (paragraph #3) At issue is what-exactly-needs to be added to the backround presuppositions in order to obtain information that is "relevant", and make sense of the utterance:

(9) "Keeping in view the specific requirements, the publication is being brought out in two different editions i.e. "Personal Edition" and "General Edition".

Readers first will attempt to distinguish between foreground and backround in order to abstractly construct an orderly "chain of entailments". And, on the basis of syntactic form, be likely to assign greater importance to the main clause. Yet, as Sperber and Wilson point out (p.307) syntactic form does not necessarily determine the pragmatically most important point. Readers, I contend, will likely make needed substitutions only to conclude that certain important information is missing-information that is relevant, and necessary in order to determine the most important point. Let us assume that readers are able to infer the following "keeping something in mind, something is happening." They may also infer the following "because of something, something else must happen." The confusion here is due to different possible entailments, which are a result of pragmatic interpretion. Who (publisher or reader) must keep specific (important?) requirements (what requirements?) in mind, and is there reason to suppose that these are a good (specific) reason for publishing two different editions? The ""specific requirements" which are the subject of the first clause have no prior mention in the discourse, so that readers-at this point-might well fail in their efforts to deduce what those "requirements" might be, even though it is implied that readers know what they are ("keeping in view the..."). The interpretative conflicts which arise as a result of apparent inconsistencies between what is presumed to be shared information (common ground) and inferences which need to be made based on given information (presuppositions) are not immediately, nor easily, resolvable. Readers will be hard-pressed to determine what information needs to be added to the background in order to obtain the foreground. In fact, this confusion taints the relevancy of the main clause: is the bringing out of the publication in two editions to be interpreted as personally relevant, or irrelevant information? This confusion is only partially remedied by the sentence which immediately follows:

(10) "Personal Edition" is specifically meant for listed biographies only and inspite (sic) of high cost of production, it is offered to them at a price as low as possible.

Readers now are able to make some connection between "requirements" and "listed biographies", but it is still unclear. On one hand, there seems to be implied, through what may be interpreted as over-cautious phrasing (the specific requirements) that highest cost and "General Edition" are linked; that is why recipients of the offer (listed biographees) will be interested in the Personal Edition, at "a price as low as possible". On the other hand, is it the publisher's requirement that ONLY listed biographies comprise the contents of the "personal edition"? Or that purchasers of the personal edition be among that group who have provided their "biographies"? If both are true, which requirement is the more relevant for potential purchasers? And again, entailments which would be expected to be determined by grammatical form are-practically speaking-undeterminable. The combination of IE collocations (marked by prepositional phrasing which inverts the expected header, as in "of high cost of production" instead of "high production costs) and complex clausal structure, also contribute to readers' confusion. And this confusion continues in the statement which follows these, occurring at midpoint in the text as a whole, and which the writer has seen fit to underline for emphasis:

(11) You are included in the publication

At this point, the recipient of the letter may well wonder why the issue of inclusion is being raised at all, and highlighted. "Does it mean I am excluded from the General Edition? Am I included in all editions, regardless of purchase? How are persons chosen for listing in the General Edition? (are these choices in fact related to the specific requirements referred to earlier? Further, why was I, the person to whom this offer is being made, being referred to as "them"?" (ex 10 above). Is the impersonalization detected in this sentence ("meant for listed biographies", vs. "meant for you") combined with "them" implicate that there is doubt about who constitutes this group? Yet, at the end there is the clear statement: "you are included". It must be emphasized that if the *terms* of the offer, and the *conditions* for selection, are presented unclearly- or purposefully left vague-there will be grounds for critical re-evaluation of all statements made to that point and taint the interpretation of those to follow. Most importantly, however, readers may dismiss as irrelevant the very information which the writer considers most relevant.

4. Comparative Data: A Summary of the Findings

As mentioned earlier in the paper, two additional examples- similar in function and basic contents-were collected for comparative purposes. The firms were located in the United States and England; both letters are presumed by the author to have been written by NS, although the one from England can be classed as a "cross-cultural" marketing effort since it was directed to the same individual in the U.S. as the American letter. To facilitate discussion, I will refer to the sets of data using the abbreviations (IE) for the primary data, and (Eng), (Am) for the data used for comparison.

Let me begin by quoting in their entirety the first three paragraphs of the (Am) text (ex. 12), followed immediately by the first paragraph of the (Eng) text (ex. 13), and (IE) text, respectively (ex 14). This will help bring into sharper focus the contrasts and similarities among the sets of data:

(12) "It is my pleasure to inform you that your biographical profile is scheduled for inclusion in the forthcoming 45th edition of Who's Who in America.

Enclosed is a copy of your sketch as it appears in the 44th edition.

Please proofread it carefully. Make any necessary additions and corrections. Then, even if no changes are needed, sign the sketch where indicated and return it to me within the next 15 days.

(13) "Your name has been put forward for biographical and pictorical inclusion in the Twelfth Edition of Men of Achievement, and you are respectfully invited to complete the questionnaire overleaf and return it to our editors so that they can prepare your detailed biography and send you a typescript for proofing. When you return the questionnaire, please enclose a recent black-and-white photograph (preferred size 2 1/4 inches square) for reproduction with your entry; if you do not have a suitable photograph available at the moment you may send one later but please return your questionnaire as soon as possible. To do so incurs no obligation; there is no charge or fee for inclusion.

As the contents of these paragraphs indicate, there are sharp contrasts between the (IE), and the (Am) and (Eng) sales letters. These range from average number of words used per sentence, and sentences per paragraph, to differences in the manner, relevance, kind and degree of informativeness and perceived sincerity of the writer. The above examples are exemplary of the way the letters *as a whole* seem to reflect differing sets of reader expectations regarding the norms for rational, cooperative discourse.

First, one clear difference is in the kind and order of information provided, and in what degree of information might be considered "sufficient" by the writer. Earlier, in Section 3.2, I showed that portions of the IE letter would be interpreted as overly informative for reasons having to due with complex sentence constructions, redundancy, digressiveness, and non-linear presentation of ideas. As can be seen in the above (representative) examples, embeddings and clausal complexity are typical of the (Eng) letter (ex. 13), while these structures are lacking in the (Am) letter (ex 12). However, sentence complexity, which may implicate a violation of the maxims of Quantity (be sufficiently informative) and Manner (be brief), is only one dimension of the discourse and may be counterbalanced by evidence that the writer has adhered to other expected conversational principles. That is the case in the two letters written by NS, as I will demonstrate below. Moreover, I claim that American recipients would expect, and be familiar with,[6] the style of writing that this "British" letter exhibits; it is a style captured by the introductory phrase "Your name has been put forward", augmented by what might be considered "over-writing" by American copy-writing standards[7].

When another aspect of the Maxim of Manner, orderliness, and the Maxim of Relevance are taken into account, both letters conform to expected norms. The ideas presented in both letters proceed in an orderly way and provide specific information which is relevant to the reader. There is no recursion or redundant information. Both the (Am) and (Eng) letter begin with statements which imply readers' inclusion, then focus on instructions and the need for accuracy and verification. Then, in both, there follows background information on the company; again, with emphasis on specificity and on providing information relevant to the reader in a precise way (years in business, number of publications to date, etc.). Lastly, both letters turn to issues related to the products offered; timing, availability, cost. Unlike the (IE) letter, which leaves vague the issue of interest ("numerous requests") or availability ("Then there is a limit to the number of 'Personal Edition' which we can offer at this low price"), and is "disorderly" in its presentation (price is mentioned prior to a request for response to the offer), both (Am) and (Eng) letters are orderly and relevant in ways that indicate that the Maxims are being observed.

Specific, detailed instruction at the outset augmented by an escalating progression of reasons why the reader would be interested in the offer, culminating in cost and ordering information, may also work to ease "presumed" skepticism on the part of recipients regarding the writer's truthfulness. Readers would already expect the information to be stated in the strongest possible way ("say as much as is required"; Levinson 106); however, the precision and confidence with which facts are presented, and the way the writers "build" upon prior information in an orderly way, add to the perceived "sincerity" of the author. Whether the writer uses imperatives and underlining to (see ex.12 above) to get readers' attention, or description as in the (Eng) version first reference to the editions available: "...will be published in two separate editions: the GRAND EDITION, hardbound with gilt lettering for general library use and the DE LUXE EDITION, individually bound in luxurious simulated leather with gold lettering (including the recipient's name) and embellishment, enclosed within a slip case (this fine edition is available only to biographees.)", quantification and specificity contribute to recipients' drawing the conclusion that the writer believes what he says. In contrast, the wording in the (IE) text's first reference to different editions is vague (see ex. 9-10), and the less purposeful and vague allusions to relevant "numbers" found in its second paragraph (ex 2) do not have the same effect.

Finally, I address the issue of ambiguity; this is perhaps the most interesting aspect of the texts, and one which all share to some degree. The ambiguity exhibited in statements can be related to readers' ability to determine what it relevant, and also to writers' intentions to observe one aspect of the Maxim of Manner (avoid ambiguity; be clear). In the (IE) letter, statements were shown to be ambiguous in ways which might confuse the reader, and cause them to ask questions which the text could not satisfy. Intriguingly, in the (Am) and (Eng) letters, some statements are also ambiguous but they are framed in such a way that readers' inferences will be in the writer's favor. A prime example are statements related to the issue of "inclusion"; or, put another way, will the recipient of the letter be listed in volume or not? In contrast to the (IE) references to this issue, discussed previously, the wording in both (Am) and (Eng) versions appear to address this issue clearly and straightforwardly. That is, on the surface, this question is answered, and (to readers' possible relief) answered "up front". The first paragraph of the (Eng) letter calls readers' attention to the steps involved for inclusion. It is implied that once one's name has "been put forward", one merely needs to submit the proper information (questionnaire, photo) and all will go well. This idea is reinforced by the last statement, which encourages recipients to respond without "fee/obligation". Thus, there is nothing to lose by responding, and all to gain (listing!). Similarly, the (Am) letter opens with the statement that "your profile is scheduled for inclusion", followed by a series of instructions. Fully half the first page of the letter is devoted to outlining these conditions, concluding with "And only with your verification can we publish your biography with the confidence that befits such a time-honored reference classic as----" Thus, a reader might conclude that the editors are intent on accuracy; the listing itself is assured. However, and importantly, *nowhere* in these letters is it stated that readers are guaranteed to be listed. Neither a recommendation nor "scheduling" accomplishes this. Further, the attention readers will pay to the emphasized "only" in the sentence quoted, combined with the letter's generally purposeful and confident tone to that point, I contend will cause NS readers to come to a similar conclusion. That is, in spite of the fact that one possible interpretation for this sentence is that the reader's profile will be published in any case, regardless of inaccuracies (i.e., it is simply in their best interest to comply), the implication is that failure to respond will place their listing in jeopardy. If understood as a threat, it will surely compel readers to take immediate action. Hence, since either reading will be in the writer's favor, ambiguity can work as a positive strategy. The inferences made from the assumption that writers will avoid ambiguity, here drawn from the statements cited, are that the Maxim has been observed. In sharp contrast, the inferences drawn from "You are in included in the publication" (IE letter, ex. 11), given its context, are that the writer has violated the Maxim, despite its superficial clarity and relevance. Thus, the ways ambiguity can contribute to readers' drawing appropriate inferences cannot be underestimated.

5. Conclusion

The increased awareness of different communicative strategies used by bi-lingual non-native speakers of English has serious implications for linguistic theory, our understanding of culture-specific communicative competence, and most relevantly here, the universal applicability of Gricean-based or semantically related pragmatic theories. Although communicative failure may be attributed to-and indeed provoked by-sociocultural differences, and barriers to interpretation imposed by linguistic transfer from the NNS writer's other languages, an understanding of cross-cultural miscommunication may be extended beyond an investigation of these factors to an examination of the differences in pragmatic meaning which frame, and underlie, all discourse. One might ask: How valid are Grician-based theories which consider his postulates as the norm for analyzing and interpreting pragmatic inferencing across societies, and-specifically-considers these principles to govern the speech of bilingual, and possibly multilingual speech groups? And the same question might be asked of those, like Sperber-Wilson, which are dependent on Western notions of "logical thinking". I would contend that these philosophically-based theories are both limited in that they apply identical approaches to both mono- and bilingual discourse. Further, and as I have shown, these approaches- while they are potentially useful to estimate and contrast sociolinguistic differences- may not be descriptively or definitially adequate.

The nativization process, which bridges some problems related to non-equivalency in translation and satisfies the communicative needs of NNS within their communities, may present interpretative problems for the NS. The transfer of language features from first languages to second, acquired languages is evidenced in the IE data. While the underlying reasons for the "transference" may be recognized, their existence places a burden on NS readers which increases the probability of misunderstanding. Thus, the difficulties presented by having to reconcile a flow of information which is not orderly (in the Western sense), and which appears to be comprised of syntactic constructions which-through a process of nativization-are at their surface arranged in non-logical order, tend to make questionable philosophical approaches which are dependent on Western notions of grammatical structure and their relationship to underlying presuppositions. To understand the pragmatic contributions of Grice and Sperber/Wilson as they may be applicable to evaluating the communicative content of the text, there needs to be taken into account differing and culturally-related discourse strategies and patterns. At issue is not only the extent to which these differences jeopardize mutual intelligibility, but the ways these differences work to threaten the achievement of economic objectives.

While the linguistic reality of English in its world context is that varying models may emerge, each with their own linguistic and literary norms, the way NS may react to a global situation which has resulted in more NNS than NS presents attitudinal problems that may be overlooked by foreign firms desiring to market their product in the U.S. There is great temptation for NNS to "code-switch" or in some way use, in unalloyed fashion, the idioms and expressions which play important functional roles in the language of NS. Yet, discourse which evidences a blend of historical and cultural traditions (i.e., those of both the Judeo-Christian and Asian traditions) demands a special sensibility and extended cultural awareness from marketers outside the speech community which identifies with this variety, just as much as it demands this sensibility from readers within it. Put another way, the IE text shares with native varieties of English certain linguistic forms (represented in the letters originating from the United States and Great Britain, despite their evidential "Americaness" and "Englishness", respectively), while also retaining its discourse identity as "Indian English" (i.e., "Indianness"). As I have demonstrated, however, it is the way in which these "identities" are combined, in an attempt to address a NS target audience (American) and achieve the firm's specific purpose (sales), that may be problematic.

As I have illustrated, the IE text may present difficulties to a NS because of deviant coherence (eg, paragraph structure) as well as cohesive strategies (eg., use of tenses, linkers, lexicon) which together interfere with readers' ability to understand the writer's intent. My findings also suggest that the pragmatic inferences likely to be made by NS *familiar* with differing varieties of English (as in the case of the English example) will have less difficulty with perceived deviance. The universalism of English, while providing a tool for cross-cultural communication, also demands that we view the use of English across cultures with a new theoretical perspective; one which recognizes that linguistic realization is related to the cultural norms and "meaning system" of a society which uses English (Kachru 1983b). Assumptions that a commonly shared language is sufficient to achieve communicative intent are not substantiated by the evidence and, given the cultural relativity of pragmatic understanding, may result in failure to reach cross-cultural marketing objectives.

Traditionally, the reaction of native English speakers to "deviant" IE communication styles and rhetorical devices has not been one of acceptance or understanding. It is important to recognize, however, that the very processes which serve to make IE texts meaningful to their users (nativization of text and context) are the very ones which operate to make IE discourse distinctive. In fact, as standards of appropriateness and acceptance develop for discourse types in South Asian English, native norms emerge. As a consequence of this acculturation, ie., the more culture-bound IE becomes, the more it grows apart from varieties familiar to American English speakers (Kachru 1986, 43). Thus, although the range of South Asian English text types is large, and may vary in keeping with the contextual and acquisitional range of their users, it may be that none of them will be completely appropriate to achieve marketing objectives in foreign markets.

Notes

1. Contemporary estimates differ, ranging from 700 million users (Lowenberg 1986) to as many as 2 billion for the number of people with some ability in English (Crystal, 1985). However, there appears to be unanimity on the on the view that "in the recorded history of mankind, there has never been a language to match the present global spread and use of English" (Smith 1987, c.f. Kachru, B. 1986; Strevens, 1982; Quirk and Widdowson, 1985)
2. The labels "South Asian", Asian English" or "Indian English" are frequently used by writers in referring to this variety (Kachru, B.,1983a; see also Gumperz, 1977; Leitner, 1983; others). Their use, as Kachru notes (1983a, 353), "suggests a parallelism with other variety-oriented terms such as 'American English' or 'British English' and implies a historical tradition and institutionalization as well as distinct formal and functional characteristics".
3. Pertinent are several years' professional experience in Marketing management and support functions, previous directly related study (MBA/mktg), and separate, ongoing interest in investigating verbal and written sales pitches/advertising language. This research has entailed the collection of several dozen examples of direct marketing sales texts.
4. Sales letters are the most common form of direct mail and are usually the centerpiece of any direct mail package. In overall format, the letters are designed to give the appearance of general or personal correspondence, and often include conventional greetings/salutations, and closures. The letters may be typed, typeset and printed, printed with a computer insert (recipient name/address) or fully computer typed. In any event, the letters serve to either make a sale directly or persuade the reader to some course of action that is designed to lead to a sale (Frank, 1986, unpublished "Dear friend: An examination of persuasive linguistic devices in direct mail-order solicitations.")

5. The Indian syllogism has five members (proposition, reason, example, application, conclusion) producing, in form, a pattern of argument which reverses the order of argument found in classical logic; the argument is stated in the first and second clauses, established by the general rule and the example in the third, and is finally proven by the virtual repetition of the first two clauses (see B. Kachru citation and example: 1983b, p20)
6. This everyday observation hardly requires defense; however, with regard to marketing efforts I note that correspondence with the Direct Marketing Association (NY, NY) confirms that recent exchange rates have encouraged new efforts by British firms to reach American markets via direct advertising media.
7. I take the risk of oversimplifying here to make the point that brevity and "punchiness" are often considered the traditional hallmarks of American advertising prose, a view supported by the didacticism (e.g., "do's and don't's) evident in advertising texts (see, for example, Bovee and Arens, 1982, on creative copywriting, p. 298-330).

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